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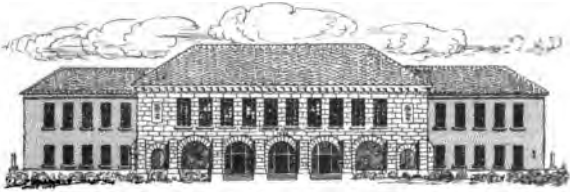
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GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION
BY
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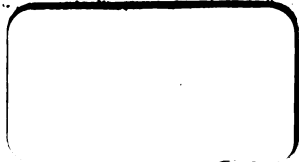
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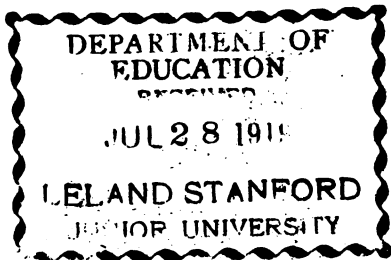


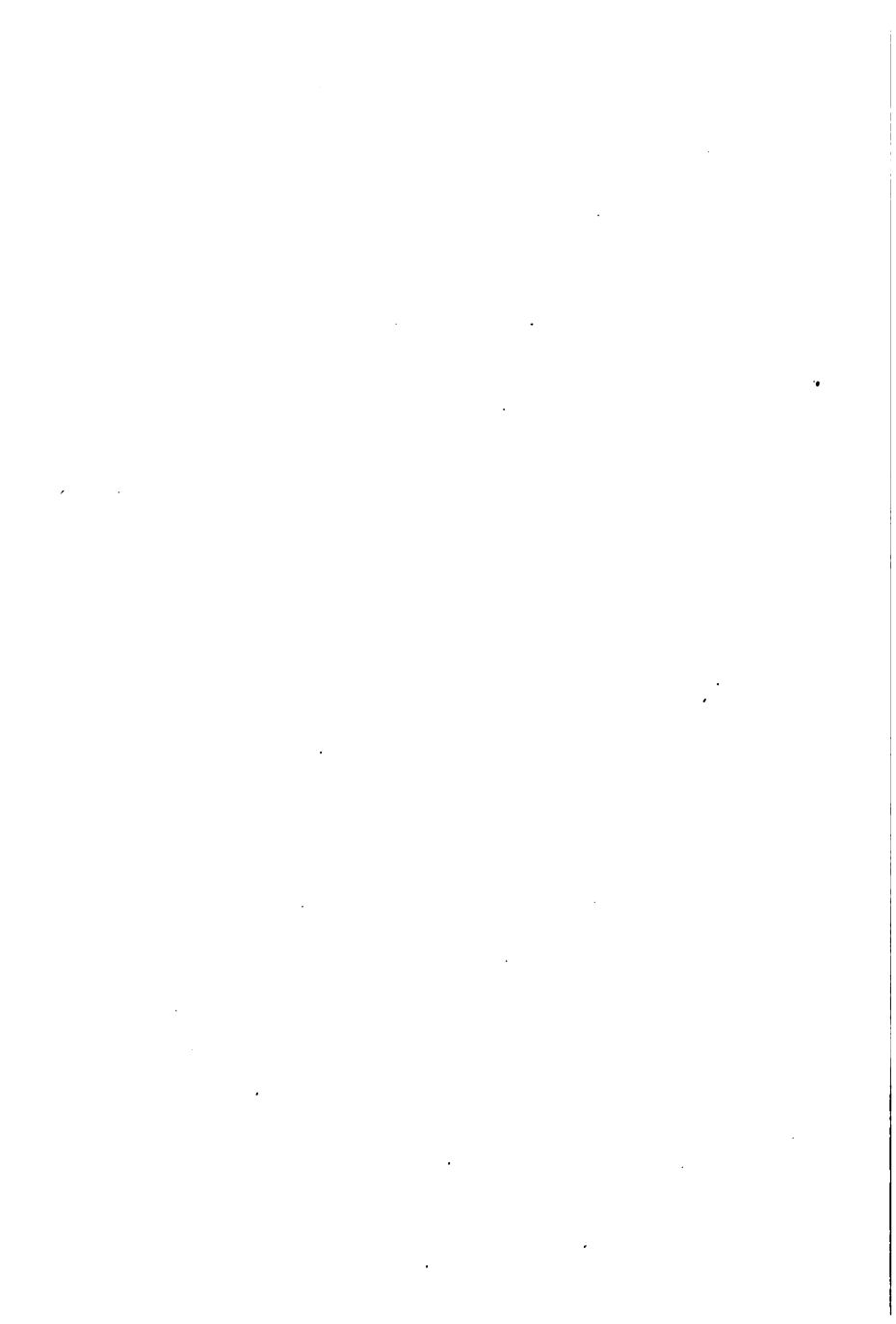
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ADVANCED

GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION

BY

E. ORAM LYTE, A.M., PH.D.

PRINCIPAL FIRST PENNSYLVANIA STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
MILLERSVILLE



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LYTE'S LANGUAGE SERIES.



ELEMENTARY ENGLISH.

For use in Primary and Lower Grammar Grades.

ELEMENTS OF GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

For use in Upper Grammar Grades.

ADVANCED GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

For use in Higher Schools.

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E. ORAM LYTE

LYTE'S AD. GR. AND COMP.

W. P. I.

PREFACE

“ADVANCED GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION” is the third of a three-book series of text-books on the English language, designed for use in all grades of city schools and advanced country schools. As its title indicates, it is a higher English grammar for schools. It is intended to meet the requirements of high schools, normal schools, and academies.

English as it is used to-day by the best writers is the groundwork upon which the structure of the book is built. In this work the student is taught to look upon language as the expression of thought, and not merely as a number of groups of words derived from words in another tongue. Attention is invited to the following special features of the work :

1. The general plan of the work and the development of the subject in accordance with pedagogical principles.
2. The accuracy and simplicity of the definitions.
3. The treatment of sentences in both analysis and composition. The sentence is regarded as the unit of expression. The student is taught to separate it into its elements, and thus to obtain a clear idea of its structure. He is also taught to compose sentences for the purpose of expressing thought. The unit of thinking is a thought. In this work the sentence as the expression of a thought is made prominent in both grammar and composition.
4. The treatment of clauses, and especially abridged clauses, and the distinction between clauses and members.
5. The treatment of subordinate conjunctives, which simplifies and makes clear the structure of the complex sentence as the expression of a thought more or less involved.
6. The gradation and literary character of the sentences selected for analysis and parsing.
7. The forms of analysis and parsing, both oral and written. The oral forms are stripped of useless words, and are expressed in plain sentences, simply and correctly constructed. The written forms have been fully tested in the class room, and have been found to be clear, complete, and concise.
8. Classification of pronouns, conjunctive pronouns, etc.
9. The treatment of the objective case, of predicate nouns and adjectives, nouns used adverbially, etc.

10. The classes of verbs, the treatment of infinitives and participles, verbals, infinitive and participial moods, tense, etc. Special attention is invited to the method of treating infinitives and participles, as they are used to-day by good writers. By the new treatment here given, students are led to understand somewhat of the present use of these flexible words.

11. Irregular and abbreviated expressions, including poetical and mathematical expressions.

12. Composition and derivation of the parts of speech.

13. "Language Tables" and exercises in correcting errors of speech. Objections have sometimes been made to exercises in "False Syntax" in a work of this kind, but the objections are not valid. No one ever modified his speech by reading "Uncle Tom's Cabin" or "Uncle Remus's" delightful stories. Oral language is learned largely through the ear, and not the eye. These exercises have a legitimate place in this work.

14. The course in Composition, presented throughout the work, including *Letter Writing, Narratives, Biographical and Historical Sketches, Descriptions, Essays, Debates, Business Papers*, etc. It begins with letter writing, as the commonest form of composition. The importance of being able to compose a sentence, correct in construction and definite in meaning, is fully shown; the structure of paragraphs is taught; and all the forms of composition in common use are developed for and by the student. In brief, the course is a "working course" in this important but neglected branch.

15. The Appendix, containing a brief history of the English language, etymology of grammatical terms, list of common abbreviations, leading prefixes, suffixes, and root words, etc.

16. The plan of references adopted, by which the pupil is able to use the book intelligently and advantageously.

Like the first and second books of the series, this book is written for the class room. It will be found easy to teach and not difficult to understand. The basis of the work is the author's "Grammar and Composition," written twelve years ago. In the revision that has been made, advantage has been taken of the experience of many excellent teachers who have tested the work in the class room. The author also desires to acknowledge his indebtedness to the works of Mætzner, Morris, March, Whitney, and others.

Fortunately for the youth of our land, the time has gone by when the study of English grammar is condemned by thoughtful teachers. Grammar is applied logic. Its study strengthens and develops the reasoning powers, cultivates concentration of thought, and gives one greater command of the most wonderful acquisition of man — language. No other study can take its place.

E. ORAM LYTE.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MILLERSVILLE, PA.,
8 November, 1898.

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 SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS

NOTE 1. Do not hurry. Give pupils time to follow each lesson in thought and not merely in memory.

NOTE 2. Do not omit the composition exercises. The composition lessons are not an integral part of the course in grammar, and may be omitted without marring the course. But these exercises are valuable and should not be omitted, unless the teacher has a substitute for them.

NOTE 3. Formal exercises in literature are omitted from this work. Pupils who are mature enough to study this text-book are ready to begin the study of English authors from the works of the authors themselves, if guided by a good plan. See Appendix G, p. 362.

NOTE 4. Let your pupils make constant use of the blackboard. Especially in analysis will the good teacher find the blackboard almost indispensable. The system of written analysis here given is used with success by many Latin teachers.

NOTE 5. Occasional lessons in the subjects contained in the Appendix (p. 345) will prove of value to pupils.

NOTE 6. Do not mistake the object of the study of grammar. Become familiar with the definitions of grammar quoted on page 319, as well as the definition given by the author. Remember that careful grammatical drill tends to develop in pupils a logical habit of thought, besides making them acquainted with the vehicle in which thought is expressed.

NOTE 7. Finally, remember that a teacher who is acquainted with and interested in a subject will interest his pupils in the subject and make them acquainted with it.

ADVANCED
GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION



PART I
ELEMENTS OF SPEECH



Sentences

1. *Read the following groups of words :*

There is the national flag. He must be cold indeed who can look upon its folds rippling in the breeze without pride of country. Who, as he sees it, can think of a State merely?
— *Charles Sumner.*

Sloth makes all things difficult ; but Industry, all easy. He that riseth late must trot all day, and shall scarcely overtake his business at night. Drive thy business ; let not that drive thee. — *Franklin.*

Which of the foregoing groups of words make statements? Which one asks a question? Which one gives a command?

2. A **sentence** is a combination of words used to make a complete statement, to ask a question, or to give a command.

3. The first word of a sentence should begin with a **capital letter**.

4. A statement or a command should generally be followed by a **period** (.).

5. A question should be followed by an **interrogation point** (?).

EXERCISE

6. *Write two sentences that state historical facts. One sentence that asks a question about the sun. One sentence that gives a command to a body of soldiers.*

Nouns and Pronouns

7. *Read the following paragraph from "Town and Country Life in 1800":*

What was then known as the far West was Kentucky, Ohio, and Central New York. Into it the emigrants came streaming along either of two routes. Men from New England took the most northern, and went out by Albany and Troy to the great wilderness which lay along the Mohawk and the lakes. They came by tens of thousands from farms and villages, and represented every trade, every occupation, every walk in life, save one: none were seafarers. No whaler left his vessel; no seaman deserted his mess; no fisherman of Marblehead or Gloucester exchanged the dangers of a life on the ocean for the privations of a life in the West. — *John B. McMaster.*

Can you find thirty-five names in the foregoing paragraph? How many words used instead of names can you find?

8. A **noun** is a word used as a name.

9. A **pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun.
10. Nouns and pronouns are sometimes called **substantives**. They are used to represent objects; nouns, by naming them; pronouns, without naming them.
11. A noun may consist of more than one word; as, *William McKinley, Nicholas Murray Butler*.
12. Each word of a particular name consisting of more than one word should begin with a **capital letter**.
13. An initial letter should be followed by a **period** (.); as, *W. T. Harris*.
14. The particular names given to persons, places, and other objects should begin with **capital letters**.
15. The names of the days of the week and the months of the year are particular names, and should begin with **capital letters**. The names of the seasons should begin with **small letters**.

EXERCISE

16. *Copy the nouns in Paragraph 7. The pronouns.*

Verbs

17. *Read the following sentences:*
1. Iron rusts.
 2. Intelligence rules.
 3. Who came?
 4. Charge, Chester, charge.
 5. Man must be educated.
 6. Must I stay?

In the foregoing sentences, which words are nouns? Which are pronouns? Which word is used with *iron* to make a statement? With *who*? Which sentence gives a command?

18. A **verb** is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to make a statement, to ask a question, or to give a command.

19. A verb may consist of more than one word; as, "Man *must be educated.*" "Long *has it waved.*"

20. The **subject** of a verb is the noun or the pronoun with which it is used to make a statement, to ask a question, or to give a command.

21. The subject of the verb is called the subject of the sentence; it represents the person or thing spoken of. The verb is called the predicate of the sentence; it denotes what is asserted of the person or thing represented by the subject.

22. The subject of a verb in a sentence that gives a command is generally *thou* or *you* understood.

EXERCISE

23. *Which are the subjects, and which the predicates, of the following sentences?*

1. Flowers bloom.
2. Sin degrades.
3. I can work.
4. Can you sing?
5. Has she come?
6. Morning is breaking.
7. Bells are jingling.
8. Who whispered?
9. Knowledge comes.
10. Wisdom lingers.

Modifying Words

24. If the rule with reference to whispering were changed so as to allow pupils to whisper more frequently, one could say that the rule was *modified*. So also we may say, "Our actions are modified by circumstances;" "They agreed to modify the contract;" "His trip through the South modified his views," etc.

25. To modify means to change somewhat.

When I say, "Show me a book," the word *book* applies to any book in the room. But when I say, "a new book," "an old book," "a small book," the word *book* applies to a certain kind of book. The words *new*, *old*, and *small* change the application of the word *book*, and are therefore said to *modify* it.

Move your hand. Move it slowly, fast, up, down. Do you vary the act of moving as I mention the words *slowly*, *fast*, *up*, etc.?

The words *slowly*, *fast*, *up*, and *down* are said to modify the verb *move*.

So also, if I say, "I strike the table, the chair, James, Henry," the application of the verb *strike* is changed or varied by the words *table*, *chair*, etc. These words modify the verb *strike*.

When I say, "the arching sky," the word *arching* adds something to the meaning of the word *sky*, but does not change its application so as to make it refer to a particular kind of sky. *Arching* is said to modify *sky*.

26. To modify a word is to change its application or add to its meaning.

27. A modifier is a word or a group of words joined to a word to change its application or add to its meaning.

28. The meaning or application of a word may be changed by a *limiting* word or group of words, or by an *explanatory* word or group of words. Thus, in the sentence, "Good boys study," the word *good* limits or restricts the word *boys* to one kind of boys, — *good* boys. In "The all-wise Ruler of the Universe," *all-wise* is explanatory, but not limiting.

Strictly speaking, the meaning of one word is modified by the meaning of another word.

EXERCISE

29. *Point out the modifying words in the following sentences and the words modified by them:*

1. Aged men walk slowly. 2. Our soldiers fought courageously and cautiously. 3. Bancroft's history has

now become the standard authority on the period of which it treats. 4. William Dean Howells's early education was gained, to a large degree, in his father's printing office. 5. Emerson had a brilliant imagination, a delicate sense of beauty, and a keen, poetic insight.

Adjectives

30. *Read the following sentences :*

1. Is fresh water a wholesome drink? 2. Ella's new book is torn. 3. My father is old. 4. He is old.

What word modifies the word *water*? What two words modify *book*? Which one represents an object? Which one does not represent an object? What adjective modifies the noun *father*? The pronoun *he*?

31. An **adjective** is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun without representing an object.

EXERCISES

32. *Use adjectives in place of the words in brackets [] :*

1. [Which?] [what kind of?] book is mine. 2. [Which?] oranges are [of what size?], [of what shape?] and [of what taste?]. 3. The [how many?] commandments are given in the [which one?] chapter of Deuteronomy. 4. The Eastern Continent contains [how many?] [what kind of?] divisions. 5. Do the [what kind of?] goods always come in the [what kind of?] packages?

33. *Point out the adjectives in the following stanza and the word that each adjective modifies :*

The splendor falls on castle walls,
 And snowy summits old in story ;
 The long light shakes across the lakes,
 And the wild cataract leaps in glory.
 Blow, bugle, blow, set the wild echoes flying,
 Blow, bugle ; answer, echoes, dying, dying, dying.

— *Tennyson.*

What kind of letter does each line of the foregoing stanza begin with? How many of the punctuation marks that are used can you name? Why is the name "Tennyson" placed after the poem?

Adverbs

34. *Read the following sentences :*

1. Listen attentively.
2. Always respect the flag.
3. It will soon be quite dark.
4. Listen very attentively.
5. Try to act nobly.

In the foregoing sentences, what verb does *attentively* modify? *Always*? What is modified by *quite*? By *very*? By *nobly*?

35. An **adverb** is a word used to modify a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or another adverb, without representing an object.

EXERCISE

36. *Point out the adverbs in the following stanzas and the word that each adverb modifies :*

Birds are singing round my windows,
 Tunes the sweetest ever heard ;
 And I hang my cage there daily,
 But I never catch a bird.

So with thoughts my brain is peopled,
 And they sing there all day long ;
 • But they will not fold their pinions
 In the little cage of Song !

— *Richard Henry Stoddard.*

Phrases and Prepositions

37. *Read the following sentences :*

1. Wise men act carefully.
2. Men of wisdom act with care.
3. The German lady speaks our language fluently.
4. The lady from Germany speaks our language with fluency.
5. Toward the earth's center is called down.

What group of words in the second sentence is used in place of the adjective in the first sentence? In place of the adverb? Compare the third and fourth sentences. How do they differ? In the fifth sentence, what is the subject of *is called*? What word introduces the phrase *of wisdom*? What word is used with the noun *Germany* to form a phrase?

38. A **phrase** is a combination of words that does not contain a subject and a predicate, and is used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

39. A **preposition** is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to form a phrase, which it joins to the word that the phrase modifies.

40. The noun or the pronoun with which a preposition is used to form a phrase is called the **object** of the preposition.

41. *After, at, behind, below, for, from, of, in, into, over, to, and up* are among the prepositions most commonly used.

42. A preposition generally shows the relation of an object, an action, or a quality, to an object.

EXERCISES

43. *Point out the phrases in the following sentences, and the words that they modify :*

1. A soldier of the Legion lay dying in Algiers.
2. Ariosto tells a pretty story of a fairy, who, by some mysterious law of her nature, was condemned to appear at certain seasons in the form of a foul and poisonous smoke.
— *Macaulay*.

44. *Point out the prepositions and their objects in the following sentences :*

The new South is enamored of her new work. Her soul is stirred with the breath of a new life. The light of a grander day is falling fair on her face. She is thrilling with the consciousness of growing power and prosperity.
— *H. W. Grady*.

Coördinate Conjunctions

45. *Read the following sentences :*

1. Knowledge comes, but Wisdom lingers.
2. Lake Superior and Lake Michigan are large.
3. Which is nearer the sun, Mars or Venus?
4. The brave troops at Santiago rushed through ditches and across ravines.

What two sentences are joined by *but*? What words are joined by *and* in the second sentence? By *or* in the third? In the fourth sentence how are the phrases joined?

46. A **conjunction** is a word used to join sentences, or parts of a sentence.

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37. Review

1. Wise care. 3.
4. The la fluency.

What g
place of t
the adver
How do t
subject of
of wisdom
to form a p

38. A p
contain a
an adjectiv

39. A I
pronoun to
the phrase

40. The
is used to
preposition.

41. *After*
and *up* are

EXERCISE

52. Point out the clauses in the following sentences :

1. A French scientist, who accompanied an expedition in search of the lost navigator, La Perouse, about 1790, first described a tree which had before this time been unknown, and which constituted the chief part of the forests around Botany Bay, Australia. Because the flower bud has on it a cover like the lid of a tiny sugar bowl, he called the tree *Eucalyptus*, which means "well covered."

Subordinate Conjunctions

53. In the following sentences, the combinations of words printed in italics are clauses.

1. The troops surrendered *because the commander was killed*. 2. Performance is better *than promising (is)*. 3. *If we resolve to succeed*, we take the first steps toward success.

What word introduces the clause in the first sentence? In the second? In the third?

54. A **subordinate conjunction** is a conjunction used with a subject and a predicate to form a clause, which it joins to the word that the clause modifies.

55. Among the chief subordinate conjunctions are *as*, *because*, *if*, *than*, and *that*.

EXERCISE

56. Use a *coördinate* or *subordinate conjunction* in place of each of the blanks in the following sentences :

1. — the moon should pass between the earth — the sun, there would be an eclipse of the sun ; — — the

earth should pass between the sun — the moon, there would be an eclipse of the moon. 2. Which study do you like best, arithmetic, algebra, — geometry? 3. I like geometry better — the others, — I think — it is more interesting — perhaps more useful. 4. Vice — crime will flee before us. 5. I know — he knows it.

Verbals

57. *Read the following sentences:*

1. Learn *to write* business papers before *attempting to transact* business. 2. General Miles sought for an opportunity *to review* the troops *commanded* by General Lee. 3. I came *to bury* Cæsar, not *to praise* him.

In the first sentence the words in italics are used as nouns: do they express action? In the second sentence the italicized words are used as adjectives. In the third sentence they are used as adverbs.

58. A **verbal** is a word that is derived from a verb and partakes of its nature, and is used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

EXERCISES

59. *Point out the verbals used as nouns:*

1. To err is human. — *Pope*. 2. To resist evil by evil is evil. — *Mohammed*. 3. To have ideas is to gather flowers. To think is to weave them into garlands. — *Madame Swetchine*. 4. Reading without purpose is unprofitable. 5. He objected to being defeated.

60. *Point out the verbals used as adjectives:*

1. Have they the courage to try? 2. Wealth acquired dishonestly is frequently a curse. 3. A noun is a word

used as a name. 4. The passage is to be feared. 5. The bird flying is a wren.

61. *Point out the verbals used as adverbs :*

1. They have gone to stay. 2. Having been detected, they were punished. 3. I was persuaded to remain. 4. Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle. 5. He is anxious to be employed.

Responsives

62. A **responsive** is the word *yes, yea, ay, no, nay, or amen*, used to reply or respond to a question or a petition.

EXERCISE

63. *Use responsives in place of the following dashes :*

1. Will you go? —. 2. Have they returned? —. 3. Can you recite "The Vagabonds"? —. 4. As many as are of the opinion that the tariff bill should be repealed will say *Ay*. —. 5. Deliver us from evil. —.

Interjections

64. An **interjection** is a word used simply to express a sudden feeling or to call attention.

65. An interjection should generally be followed by an *exclamation point (!)*.

EXERCISE

66. *Which of the following words are interjections?*

1. Alas, poor Yorick! 2. Ho, ho! Come here!
3. Hush! he will hear you. 4. "O¹ stay!" the maiden said.
5. Be sure that you blow out the candle —
Ri fol de rol tol de rol lol. — *Horace Smith*.

1. The interjection *O* is always written with a *capital letter*.

Definition of Language

67. Language is the expression of thought by means of words combined in sentences.

We think, and our mental products are ideas and thoughts. An idea is expressed by a single word, or a group of words not containing a subject and predicate; as, *birds, trees, grow, can fly, wise, more beautiful*, etc. A thought is expressed by a group of words containing a subject and predicate; as, *Birds can fly; Trees are plants*, etc.

68. All the words of the language can be divided, according to their use in sentences, into ten classes, called **parts of speech**. (300.)

The term *part of speech* is applied to a single word as well as to a class of words.

69. The ten parts of speech are —

Nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, verbals, responsives, and interjections.

70. The part of speech to which a word belongs is determined from *its use in the sentence in which it is found*. Hence a word may be a noun in one sentence, a verb in another, an adjective in another, and so on; as, “The *fast* is over” (*n.*). “I *fast* twice a week” (*v.*). “He owns a *fast* horse” (*adj.*). “The horse trots *fast*” (*adv.*).

The word *word* is frequently used in this book as the equivalent of *part of speech*. It must not be forgotten, however, that a part of speech may consist of several words. Thus, *General Fitz-John Porter* is a noun; *might have been marching* is a verb; *more gallant* is an adjective; *less wisely* is an adverb; *to be reproved* is a verbal; *according to* is a preposition; *as if* is a conjunction, etc.

EXERCISE

71. *Point out the parts of speech in the following articles :*

The fact is, that in order to do anything in this world worth doing, we must not stand shivering on the bank and thinking of the cold and the danger, but jump in and scramble through as well as we can. It will not do to be perpetually calculating risks and adjusting nice chances : it did very well before the flood, when a man could consult his friends upon an intended scheme for a hundred and fifty years, and then live to see its success for six or seven centuries afterward ; but at present, a man waits, and doubts, and hesitates, and consults his brother, and his uncle, and his first cousins, and his particular friends, till one fine day he finds that he is sixty-five years of age ; that he has lost so much time in consulting first cousins and particular friends, that he has no more time left to follow their advice. — *Sydney Smith.*

THE ARROW AND THE SONG

I shot an arrow into the air,
It fell to earth, I knew not where ;
For so swiftly it flew, the sight
Could not follow it in its flight.

I breathed a song into the air,
It fell to earth, I knew not where ;
For who has sight so keen and strong
That it can follow the flight of song ?

Long, long afterward, in an oak,
I found the arrow, still unbroke ;
And the song, from beginning to end,
I found again in the heart of a friend.

— *Henry W. Longfellow.*

Definition of Grammar

72. Grammar is the science that treats of the relations and forms of words and sentences, as used in the correct expression of thought.

What does this definition include? Exclude?

73. When words are so combined as to bring together the ideas expressed by them, they are said to be *related*. The relation of words is indicated by their form and position. The form of a word is determined by the idea that it expresses, and the relation that it bears to other words. The position of a word is determined by the relation that it bears to other words. The usual place in which words are found in a sentence is their *natural position*. When words are used out of their natural position, they are said to be *transposed*. As we naturally expect to hear or see words in a certain order, we are more likely to notice them when they are out of their usual place, and consequently the transposition of a word renders it more emphatic; and *one of the chief reasons why words are transposed is to make them emphatic*.

We have *a priori* reasons for believing that in every sentence there is some one order of words more effective than any other; and this order is the one which presents the elements of the proposition in the succession in which they may be most readily put together. — *Spencer*.

74. The leading logical divisions of English grammar are *etymology*, which treats of the classification and form of words, and *syntax*, which treats of the relation of words and the construction and form of sentences.

The subject-matter of Grammar is not words, but the relations which words bear to one another in formed sentences, and these relations are named and catalogued for us in the scheme of the Parts of Speech. — *Earle*.

Abbreviations

75. Shortened written words like *Gen. R.*, *Prof.*, *M. D.*, etc., are called **abbreviations**.

In speaking, the word for which the abbreviation stands is usually pronounced in full, except in the case of initial letters in a person's name, and a few titles, such as A.M., LL.D., M.D., etc. Thus, "Wm. A. Stone, Gov. of Pa.," should be read *William A. Stone, Governor of Pennsylvania*.

76. An abbreviation should begin with the same kind of letter as the word for which it stands, and be followed by a period.

EXERCISES

77. *Write the following abbreviations and the words for which they stand:*

Mr., Mrs., Dr., M.D., A.M., Col., P.M., Ala., Ill., Pa., W. Va., N.O., Acct., Recd., A.D. (See Appendix, p. 347.)

78. *Abbreviate the following words:*

Esquire, Doctor of Laws, Honorable, Professor, Florida, Kentucky, Tennessee, British America, county, hour, France, bushel, creditor, debtor, yards.

79. *Write the abbreviations for the days of the week. The months of the year.*

Contractions

80. Shortened spoken and written expressions like *o'er*, *I've*, etc., are called **contractions**.

A contraction should be read as it is written. Thus, "I'll go" should not be read "I will go." Contractions should be avoided in formal writing and speaking.

81. An **apostrophe** (') should be used in a contraction to show the omission of one or more letters.

82. The contraction *ain't* should not be used. *Don't* should be used as a contraction of *do not*, and not of *does not*.

EXERCISES

83. *Explain the following contractions:*

Don't; sha'n't; he's; they're; aren't; isn't; I'll; 'tis; we've.

84. *Correct the following errors:*

1. Theyre not coming. 2. Weve found them. 3. I aint going. 4. He dont care. 5. Aint you mistaken?

Omitted Words

85. Words necessary to the sense are frequently omitted in speaking and writing. The hearer or reader must be able to supply them.

Frequently, it is better to answer questions without omitting words. We should *form the habit of using sentences* to express our thoughts.

EXERCISE

86. *Supply the omitted words:*

1. Where is Gibraltar? In Spain. 2. To what government does it belong? England. 3. Pride goeth before destruction, and a haughty spirit before a fall. — *Prov. xvi. 18*. 4. Who won the battle of Chancellorsville? General Lee. 5. How? By skillful generalship.

6. A moral, sensible, and well-bred man
Will not affront me, and no other can. — *Cowper*.

ELEMENTS OF COMPOSITION

RULES

87. 1. **Composition** is the art of expressing thought by means of words combined in sentences. (67.)

88. To write well we must know (1) what to write, and (2) how to express what we wish to write.

Material for written composition may be drawn from one's own experience, or obtained by reading and observation. The ability to read a book thoroughly and quickly is of great advantage. A course in the grammatical analysis of sentences enables pupils to grasp the thought of an author by teaching them to analyze the sentence in which the thought is expressed.

Directions for collecting material for composition exercises will be found throughout this work. A few remarks with reference to expression will be of service.

Suggestions as to the form of preparing compositions and the method of correcting them will be found in the Appendix, p. 350.

A lucid atmosphere in prose diction is the fruit of an orderly and logical habit of mind. Grammar well studied tends to implant a logical habit of mind without wakening much conscious attention to the valuable acquisition. — *Earle*.

89. When one writes a composition of any kind, his first object should be to make himself understood. The following rules will assist the pupil to accomplish this object.

1. *Write naturally.* It is often the case that a person has one list of words that he uses when he talks, and another list that he uses when he writes. The aim should be to write easily and naturally, without restraint, and

without making an effort to use "big words." Neither should one try to express his thoughts in short words only. Use the words you have at command, and use them without thinking whether they are one syllabled words or four.

2. *Write carefully.* To write naturally does not mean that you are to write carelessly. Your penmanship should be neat; you should not misspell any words; you should not violate any grammatical rules; you should not neglect to use the proper punctuation marks; your finished exercise should be neat and clean.

3. *Write clearly.* A few rules will be given to aid you in the use of words and in the construction and form of sentences. Make every sentence express what you mean it to express. If its meaning is not clear to you, select such words as will make it clear, or change the form of the sentence, so that it will be understood.

CAPITAL LETTERS

90. The following words should begin with **capital letters** :

1. The first word of a sentence.
2. The first word of a line of poetry.
3. The first word of a direct quotation. (95, 6.)
4. Names representing the Deity; as, "Trust in *Providence.*" "Thou *Great First Cause.*"

And also, the *Messiah*, the *Son of God*, the *Savior*, the *Holy Trinity*, etc.

Pronouns representing the Deity are generally capitalized, when used in direct address without an antecedent; as, "O *Thou* that hearest the mourner's prayer," etc. But see the *Holy Bible*.

5. Particular names, and words derived from them ; as, *John Smith, France, Augustan, French.*

We write "*The Red River,*" because both words are needed to form the name, and "*The Ohio river,*" because the word *river* is not part of the name.

6. Titles, and abbreviations of particular names and titles ; as, *Prof. Jas. W. Westlake, A.M.*

Titles like *sir, madam, your honor,* etc., are usually not capitalized.

7. The names of things regarded as persons ; as, "Out of the bosom of the *Air.*"

8. The names of the months and of the days of the week.

9. The important words in a heading ; as, "A song entitled 'The Last Rose of Summer.'"

10. Words of special importance ; as, "The *Centennial Exhibition.*"

The names of religious sects and political parties should usually begin with capitals.

11. The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O* should be written with capitals.

EXERCISES

91. *Explain the use of the capitals in your geography lesson. In your reading lesson.*

92. *Copy the following sentences, using capitals where necessary :*

1. god might have made the earth bring forth enough for great and small, the oak tree and the cedar tree, without a flower at all.¹—*mary howitt.* 2. carlyle wrote a work entitled "the french revolution." 3. do you think

any one should begin a letter by saying, "i take my pen in hand to let you know that i am well"?

1. A four-line stanza.

PUNCTUATION

93. Punctuation is the art of dividing written composition by means of marks, or points.

Punctuation is based upon grammatical analysis.— *Westlake*. The purpose of every point is to indicate to the eye the construction of the sentence in which it occurs.— *A. S. Hill*.

94. The **principal points** used are the *comma*, the *semicolon*, the *colon*, the *period*, the *interrogation point*, the *exclamation point*, the *dash*, *marks of parenthesis*, *brackets*, and *quotation marks*.

The Comma (,)

95. The **comma** is used —

1. Between every two words or phrases of a series of more than two in the same construction.

EXAMPLES. — "Carlyle's translations of Goethe's works are *powerful*, *accurate*, and *graceful*." "God's spirit is *in us*, *around us*, and *above us*."

2. Between two words or phrases of equal rank, when the conjunction is omitted.

EXAMPLE. — "*Sober*, *industrious* men are needed."

3. To set off appositive nouns and adjective clauses that are explanatory, but not restrictive.

EXAMPLES. — "John Bunyan, an illiterate *tinker*, wrote 'Pilgrim's Progress,' the great *allegory*." "Geoffrey Chaucer, *who is called the father of English poetry*, died in the last year of the fourteenth century."

4. To set off transposed phrases and clauses.

EXAMPLES. — *Since the time of Chaucer*, there have been only two poets who at all resemble him. — *Lander*. “*If Swift’s life was the most wretched*, I think Addison’s was one of the most enviable.”

5. To set off interposed words, phrases, and clauses.

EXAMPLES. — “It was, *indeed*, of no avail.” “The dervise, *in the Arabian tale*, did not hesitate to abandon his comrade.” “And so, *as Tiny Tim observed*, ‘God bless us, every one!’”

6. To set off short quotations informally introduced.

EXAMPLE. — “Who said, ‘*Let us have peace*’?”

7. To set off independent elements.

EXAMPLE. — “Fly, *brother*, fly!”

8. Frequently, to mark the ellipsis of a word.

EXAMPLES. — “Burke was a statesman ; Cowper, a poet.” “Tickets, fifty cents.”

9. Sometimes, at the end of a long subject.

EXAMPLE. — “The Convention which assembled at Paris in 1792, decreed that royalty was abolished in France.”

10. Sometimes, between the members of a compound sentence that are not subdivided by commas.

EXAMPLE. — We love Burns, and we pity him. — *Carlyle*.

11. When necessary to prevent ambiguity.

What does the adverb modify in “He who breaks his promises frequently loses the confidence of his friends”?

EXERCISES

96. Copy ten sentences, to illustrate the first ten rules for the comma.

97. Supply omitted commas :

1. Macaulay is learned vivacious and elegant ; Sydney Smith vigorous and witty. — *Underwood*. 2. Morally the

general superiority of women over men is I think unquestionable.

3. Between the dark and the daylight
 When night is beginning to lower
 Comes a pause in the day's occupations
 That is known as the children's hour.

— *Longfellow.*

The Semicolon (;)

98. The semicolon is used —

1. Between the members of a compound sentence that are subdivided by commas.

EXAMPLE. — He did it all, and infinitely more; and to Tiny Tim, who did not die, he was a second father. — *Dickens.*

2. Between members that are loosely connected.

EXAMPLE. — I'll answer him by law; I'll not budge an inch. — *Shak.*

3. Before *as*, *viz.*, *namely*, etc., when they introduce examples or illustrations.

EXERCISES

99. *Copy two sentences that illustrate the first rule.*

100. *Punctuate :*

1. It was now Miss Gilbert's office to engage the audience and her little troop of infantry was put through its evolutions and exercises, to the astonishment and delight of all beholders. — *Holland.* 2. In 1848, Donald G. Mitchell visited Europe for the second time and on his return he published "The Battle Summer."

The Colon (:)

101. The colon is used —

1. Before an enumeration, or a quotation introduced by “as follows,” or an equivalent expression.

EXAMPLE. — “The following persons were elected: President, Louis Mc. J. Lyte; Vice President, Gilbert H. Lyte.”

2. Sometimes, to separate the members of a compound sentence that are subdivided by semicolons. (71.)

EXERCISE

102. *Punctuate* :

The Chair makes the following appointments Orator Edward Brooks Essayist Florence Dean.

The Period (.)

103. The period is used —

1. After declarative and imperative sentences.

EXAMPLES. — “Truth is mighty.” “Let there be light.”

2. After abbreviations, headings, Arabic figures used to number paragraphs, etc. (75.)

1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, 29th, etc., are not abbreviations.

EXERCISES

104. *Copy examples to illustrate the foregoing rules.*

105. *Punctuate* :

1. Soldiers fight	2 Rev F L Harding	3 Chap xi
4 I go but I return	5 Come boys	

The Interrogation Point (?)

106. The **interrogation point** is used after questions.

EXAMPLES. — “Who won the battle of Fredericksburg?” “‘My father! must I stay?’ shouted he.”

EXERCISES

107. *Copy two sentences that illustrate this rule.*

108. *Punctuate:*

1. What is truth
2. Pilate asked “What is truth”
3. “What is truth” Pilate asked.
4. Who asked “What is truth”
5. Where is my wife Elizabeth

The Exclamation Point (!)

109. The **exclamation point** is used after expressions that denote strong emotion.

EXAMPLES. — “How time flies!” “Alas, poor Yorick!”

The interjection *O* is called the vocative *O*, and is not directly followed by any point; as, “O stay!” The interjection *oh* is called the emotional *oh*, and is followed by an exclamation point or a comma; as, “Oh, how lovely!” “Oh! I am ruined.”

The Dash (—)

110. The **dash** is used —

1. Sometimes, to set off a parenthetical expression.

EXAMPLE. — I ought to presume — and it costs me nothing to do so — that he abundantly deserves the esteem, etc. — *Burke*.

2. To denote a sudden change of thought.

EXAMPLE. — “‘Bring me the’ — but he suddenly disappeared.”

3. At the end of a line, to show that the sense is not complete. (145.)

4. At the end of a quotation, before the name of the author. (III, Ex.)

Marks of Parenthesis ()

111. **Marks of parenthesis** are used to inclose a remark or explanation that has no essential connection with the rest of the sentence.

EXAMPLE. — Know, then, this truth, (enough for man to know,) Virtue alone is happiness below. — *Pope*.

Brackets []

112. **Brackets** are used to inclose a remark or correction made by some one not the author.

EXAMPLES. — “The chairman of the committee [*Mr. Smith*] presented the bill.” “The wages of sin is [*are*] death.”

Quotation Marks (“ ”)

113. **Quotation marks** are used to inclose quoted expressions.

EXAMPLES. — Did Galileo say, “Nevertheless it does move”? “Now,” he said, “is your time.”

A quotation within a quotation in *double marks* is inclosed in *single marks*, and *vice versa*; as, “The teacher asked, ‘Did Galileo say, “Nevertheless it does move”?’” “‘Dickens’s “Old Curiosity Shop,”’ said he, ‘is very interesting.’”

EXERCISES

114. *Copy sentences that illustrate the use of exclamation points, marks of parenthesis, and quotation marks*

115. *Punctuate:*

1 Who wrote The Present Crisis 2 The lady asked
Who wrote The Present Crisis 3 By whom asked the

lady was The Present Crisis written 4 The lady asked
by whom The Present Crisis was written

5 I claim you old friend yawned the armchair
This corner you know is your seat *Lowell*

116. *Explain the points used in your reading lesson.
Your geography lesson. Your history lesson.*

Other Marks

117. The apostrophe (') is used to mark the possessive case of nouns (476) and to denote the omission of one or more letters (81).

118. The **hyphen** (-) is used to join the parts of many compound words, and to mark the division of a word into syllables; as, *Spanish-American*, *re-cre-ate*. It is also placed at the end of a line when one or more syllables of a word are taken to the next line. (122.)

119. The **caret** (^) is used in writing to show where words or letters are to be inserted.

120. The **star** (*), **dagger** (†), **double dagger** (‡), etc., are used as marks of reference.

121. *Emphatic words* are sometimes underscored.

122. In manuscripts, a line drawn under a word indicates *italics*; two lines, SMALL CAPITALS; three lines, CAPITALS.

PART II

ELEMENTS AND ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES



SENTENCES

123. A **sentence** is a combination of words used to make a complete statement, to ask a question, or to give a command.

SENTENCES CLASSED ACCORDING TO FORM

124. *Read the following sentences :*

1. Birds fly. 2. The sun is shining. 3. Men who are wise, act carefully. 4. The tree lies where it fell. 5. Knowledge comes, but Wisdom lingers. — *Tennyson.*

What is the subject of the first sentence? The predicate? What words form a clause in the third sentence? In the fourth? Of what two sentences is the fifth sentence composed?

125. Sentences are divided, according to their form, into three classes: **simple**, **complex**, and **compound**.

126. A **simple sentence** is a sentence that contains but one subject and one predicate. Illustrate.

127. A **complex sentence** is a sentence that contains one or more clauses. (51.) Illustrate.

128. A **compound sentence** is a sentence composed of two or more sentences. Illustrate.

129. The sentences used to form a compound sentence are called **members** of the compound sentence.

It should be remembered that the term *clause* is loosely used in many text-books on rhetoric and grammar to name any part of a sentence containing a subject and predicate. The reasons for restricting the use of this term to subordinate propositions, and using the term *member* to name the coördinate parts of a compound sentence, are obvious.

130. A sentence that contains two or more subjects or predicates, and can be expanded into a compound sentence, may be called a **contracted compound sentence**; as, "Days come and go" (= Days come and days go).

131. A sentence that contains two or more subjects, and can not be expanded into a compound sentence, may be called a **partial compound sentence**; as, "Louis McJunkin and Gilbert Harding constitute the firm."

Contracted compound sentences and partial compound sentences are usually called *simple sentences*.

EXERCISE

132. Which of the following sentences are simple, which complex, and which compound? Why?

1. Sirius is a bright star. 2. How I wonder what you are! 3. I came, I saw, I conquered. 4. The Queen of Sheba, who had heard of the wisdom of Solomon, visited him. 5. The British army left America in 1782 and 1783, and in 1783 the American army was disbanded. 6. Love your enemies. 7. Observe the scope and design of the

writer. 8. Righteousness exalteth a nation, but sin is a reproach to any people. — *Prov. xiv. 34.* 9. I saw who came. 10. Men labor that they may become rich.

SENTENCES CLASSED ACCORDING TO USE

133. *Read the following sentences :*

1. Sirius is a bright star. 2. Is Sirius a bright star?
3. Boys, go to work. 4. How bright Sirius is! 5. If your letter is finished, bring it to me.

Which sentences are used to make statements? Which one is used to ask a question? Which ones are used to give commands?

134. Sentences are divided, according to their use, into three classes: **declarative, interrogative, and imperative.**

135. A **declarative sentence** is a sentence used to make a statement. Illustrate.

136. An **interrogative sentence** is a sentence used to ask a question. Illustrate.

137. An **imperative sentence** is a sentence used to give a command. Illustrate.

138. Some declarative sentences are used to express a sudden thought or feeling, and may be called **exclamatory sentences**; as, "How amiable are thy tabernacles!" An exclamatory sentence should be followed by an *exclamation point*. (109.)

EXERCISE

139. *Classify the following sentences according to form and use :*

1. Give me liberty. 2. Do you love your enemies?
3. Do you know where Lucknow is? 4. The numerous

harbors of Maine offer the best facilities for commerce.
5. Doubt vanished with Smoke, and Hope began with Flame. — *Mitchell*.

ANALYSIS

140. *Read the following sentence :*

Diligent pupils improve rapidly.

What kind of sentence is this? What is its subject? Its predicate? By what adjective is "pupils" modified? By what adverb is "improve" modified?

The answers to the foregoing questions may be given according to a certain form, as follows :

This is a simple, declarative sentence. *Pupils* is the subject; it is modified by *diligent*, an adjective. *Improve* is the predicate; it is modified by *rapidly*, an adverb.

This statement is called the *analysis* of the sentence. It may be expressed in writing, thus :

WRITTEN ANALYSIS	
S D	<i>pupils</i> ^s <i>Diligent</i> ^{adj} <i>improve</i> ^v <i>rapidly</i> ^{adv}

141. Analysis is the process of separating a sentence into the words, phrases, and clauses of which it is composed.

Analysis may be either written or oral. The written analysis of a sentence is conveniently and appropriately called an *outline* of the sentence.

The analysis of a sentence is really the analysis of the thought expressed by the sentence. When we say that one word is modified by another, we mean that the idea expressed by one word modifies the idea expressed by another word. Can you illustrate this? (28.)

142. The words, phrases, and clauses of which a sentence is composed are called its **elements**.

143. The elements of a sentence may be divided into **essential** elements (the *subject* and *predicate*), **modifying** elements, **conjunctive** elements, and **independent** elements.

144 The subject with its modifiers is called by some authors the logical subject, or the complex or compound subject, and the subject (without modifiers) the grammatical subject, or the simple subject. The same distinction is sometimes made with respect to the predicate and its modifiers.

The following treatment of the analysis of sentences is designed to serve a double purpose: (1) to acquaint pupils with the structure of the English sentence, and thus enable them to understand written and oral composition, and (2) to train them in the power of analytic thought and deductive reasoning.

CHIEF USES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES

NOUNS, PRONOUNS, AND VERBS

Verbs and their Subjects

145. In the sentences "Birds fly" and "He came," the noun *birds* is the subject of the verb *fly*; and the pronoun *he* is the subject of the verb *came*. *Birds* and *he* are also the subjects of the sentences, and *fly* and *came* are the predicates. (21.) It may be seen that —

146. Nouns and pronouns may be used as the *subjects of verbs*. (20.)

147. Nouns and pronouns thus used are called the **subjects** of the sentences of which the verbs are the **predicates**.

The way in which words are used in sentences is called their *construction*. The word *construction* means "building together."

EXERCISES

148. Analyze the following sentences :

1. Music charms.

ORAL ANALYSIS

This is a simple, declarative sentence. *Music* is the subject. *Charms* is the predicate.

WRITTEN ANALYSIS

S D | *Music*^a
| *charms*^p

2. Must I stay? 3. Intelligence rules. 4. Study.¹
5. Gentle persons are greatly admired.²

1. *You* understood is the subject. In outlining, inclose it in parentheses. A sentence, the subject or the predicate of which is omitted, may be called *elliptical*.

2. In the fifth sentence, the subject *persons* is modified by the adjective *gentle*, and the predicate *are admired* is modified by the adverb *greatly*. (See 31 and 35.) Adjectives and adverbs thus used will frequently be found in the following exercises.

149. Copy or compose two sentences containing nouns used as the subjects of verbs. Two containing pronouns.

The exercises in copying and composing sentences in this Part are designed to aid pupils to learn to write sentences of various kinds complete in form, grammatically correct, and properly punctuated and capitalized. Examine for these points the sentences presented for analysis. In each subject commit to memory one or two sentences worth remembering.

Possessive Nouns and Pronouns

150. In "John's books," the noun *John's* modifies the noun *books* by denoting possession. So also the pronoun *our* in "our nation." It may be seen that—

Nouns and pronouns may modify other nouns and pronouns by *denoting possession*. When thus used they are called **possessive nouns** and **pronouns**.

EXERCISES

151. Analyze the following sentences :

1. My brother-in-law's valuable property was partly destroyed.

ORAL ANALYSIS

This is a simple, declarative sentence. *Property* is the subject; it is modified by *brother-in-law's*, a possessive noun, and *valuable*, an adjective. *Brother-in-law's* is modified by *my*, a possessive pronoun. *Was destroyed* is the predicate; it is modified by *partly*, an adverb.

OUTLINE

S D	<i>property</i> ⁿ
	<i>brother-in-law's</i> ^{pn}
	<i>My</i> ^{pp}
	<i>valuable</i> ^{adj}
	<i>was destroyed</i> ^v
	<i>partly</i> ^{adv}

2. Whose books were taken? 3. General Jackson's forces were soon engaged. 4. Where did Longfellow's *Evangeline* live? 5. The old man's feeble footsteps slowly died away.

152. Copy or compose three sentences containing possessive nouns. Two containing possessive pronouns.

Appositive Nouns and Pronouns

153. In the sentence "The poet Keats died young," the noun *Keats* modifies the noun *poet* by representing the same person. It may be seen that—

Nouns and pronouns may modify other nouns and pronouns by representing the same person or thing. When thus used they are called **appositive nouns and pronouns**.

Appositive means "placed by the side of."

EXERCISES

154. Analyze the following sentences:

1. The steamer Tallapoosa was lost. 2. I myself will go. 3. When did the painter Raphael live? 4. Has your friend Sarah returned? 5. Was our late President, General U. S. Grant,¹ ever wounded?

	OUTLINE
	<i>steamer</i> ⁿ
	<i>The</i> ^{adj}
	<i>Tallapoosa</i> ^{pn}

1. *General U. S. Grant* is a noun. (II.)

Complements

155. In the sentence "Dogs bark," nothing is needed to complete the sense; but if we say, "Dogs chase —," or "Dogs are —," the sense is incomplete, and some word, as *rabbits* or *cross*, must be added to express the full meaning; thus: "Dogs chase rabbits," or "Dogs are cross." The words *rabbits* and *cross* are the complements of the verbs that they follow. And in the sentence "They desire to be *soldiers*," the word *soldiers* is needed after the verbal *to be* to complete the meaning, and is its complement. The word *complement* means "something that completes."

156. A **complement** is a noun, a pronoun, or an adjective, added to a verb or a verbal to complete the meaning.

157. A verb that requires a complement is called a **verb of incomplete predication**, or an **incomplete predicate**.

EXERCISE

158. *Supply complements:*

1. Longfellow was a —.
2. He wrote —.
3. Evangeline and Hiawatha are —.
4. I want to be an —.
5. To chase — is —.
6. Whose — is that?
7. Whose — have you?
8. The child was called —.
9. Gibbon was an —.
10. Jefferson was elected —.

Subjective Predicate Nouns and Pronouns

159. In the sentence "Longfellow was a poet," the noun *poet* modifies the noun *Longfellow* by representing the same person, and it is also the complement of the verb *was*. It may be seen that—

Nouns and **pronouns** may be the *complements* of verbs and modify their subjects by *representing the same person or thing*. When thus used they are called **subjective predicate nouns** and **pronouns**. (508, 1, note 2.)

EXERCISES

160. *Analyze the following sentences:* •

1. Beaumont was Fletcher's colaborer.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Was is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *colaborer*, a subjective predicate noun, which modifies *Beaumont*. *Colaborer* is modified, etc.

OUTLINE

SD	Beaumont [*]
	was ^p +
	colaborer ^{ppn}
	Fletcher's ^{pn}

The complement of a verb that modifies its subject is written under the verb, beginning at the fourth letter. Add a small sign (+) to a verb or a verbal when it is incomplete.

As *was* has but three letters in it, a small dash is used on the line of writing in place of the fourth letter.

2. Sirius is a bright star. 3. Millard Fillmore was not elected President. 4. Was Charles chosen umpire? 5. The French emperor Napoleon was a great general.

161. *Copy or compose three sentences containing subjective predicate nouns.*

Subjective Predicate Nouns. (Continued)

162. In the sentence "James wishes to become a scholar," the noun *scholar* modifies the noun *James*, and is also the complement of *to become*. The verbal *to become* is said to refer to the noun *James*. (Why? 860.) It may be seen that—

Nouns and **pronouns** may be the *complements* of verbals, and modify the nouns and pronouns to which they refer

by *representing the same person or thing*. When thus used they may conveniently be called **subjective predicate nouns** and **pronouns**.

EXERCISE

163. *Explain the use of the words in italics:*

1. Do *you* desire to become a *poet*? 2. *I* have no desire to be *he*. 3. Did *Henry Clay* expect to be elected *President*? 4. *He* became tired of being a country *physician*. 5. Try to be a brave *man*.

Nouns and Pronouns used Absolutely

164. In the sentence "To become a scholar requires study," the noun *scholar* is the complement of the verbal *to become*, but it does not modify any preceding noun or pronoun. The verbal *to become* is said to be used without reference to a preceding noun or pronoun. (Why? 864.) It may be seen that—

Nouns and pronouns may be used merely as the *complements of verbals*. In such constructions nouns and pronouns are said to be used **absolutely**. (469, 2.)

Absolutely means "in a loosened sense."

EXERCISE

165. *Explain the use of the words in italics:*

1. To be called a *Christian* was at one time a reproach. 2. It requires courage to be a *soldier*. 3. The *difficulties* in the way of becoming a successful *lawyer* are not slight *ones*. 4. To seem to be a *gentleman* while being a *boor*—that is no easy *task*.

Direct Objects

166. In the sentence "Dogs bite strangers," the noun *strangers* modifies the verb *bite* by representing the persons receiving or directly affected by the act of biting, and it is also the complement of the verb. And in the sentence "We talk of educating our children," the noun *children* modifies the verbal *educating* in the same way, and is also the complement of *educating*. It may be seen that—

Nouns and **pronouns** may be the *complements* of verbs and verbals, and modify them by *representing the person or thing receiving or directly affected by the action expressed by them*. When thus used they are called **direct objects**. (490.)

167. The **direct object** of a verb or a verbal can be found by asking a question with *whom* or *what* before the verb or the verbal. The answer will be the *direct object*; as, "*Whom* did John strike?" "John struck *James*." "*What* did Columbus discover?" "Columbus discovered *America*." "*Whom* do we talk of educating?" "We talk of educating our *children*." "*What* is it profitable to study?" "To study *grammar* is profitable." (But see 615.)

Verbs and verbals that have direct objects are said to be *transitive*. (598.)

EXERCISES

168. Explain the use of the words in italics, and analyze 1, 2, 4, 6, and 7.

I. Cæsar conquered *Gaul*.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Conquered is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *Gaul*, a direct object, by which it is modified.

OUTLINE

SD	<i>Cæsar</i> * <i>conquered</i> *+ <i>Gaul</i> °+
----	---

The sign + shows that the predicate is incomplete.

2. You have wronged *me*. 3. *Flavius* exhorted the *heathen* to abandon *idolatry*. 4. Did Aaron Burr kill *Hamilton*? 5. *Valdez* tried to suppress the *slave trade* in Cuba. 6. Columbus discovered *Cuba*. 7. Columbus's brother *Bartholomew* visited the English *monarch*, Henry VIII.¹

1. See 11 and 153.

169. Copy or compose three sentences containing nouns used as direct objects. Two containing pronouns.

Objective Predicate Nouns and Pronouns

170. It has been shown that in the sentence "Charles was chosen umpire," the noun *umpire* is the complement of the verb *was*, and modifies its subject. In the sentence "The captains chose Charles umpire," the noun *umpire* is a complement of *chose*, and modifies *Charles* by representing the same person. But *Charles* has become the direct object of *chose*, and consequently modifies it and is also a complement of it. The verb *chose* has therefore two complements: the noun *Charles*, by which it is modified, and the noun *umpire*, which modifies its direct object. So also in "They endeavored to elect Mr. Brown president," in which the verbal *to elect* has two complements: *Mr. Brown*, its direct object, by which it is modified, and *president*, which modifies *Mr. Brown*. It may be seen that —

Nouns and pronouns may be the *complements* of verbs and verbals, and modify their direct objects by *representing the same person or thing*. When thus used they are called **objective predicate nouns and pronouns**.

171. The principal verbs that may join predicate nouns or pronouns to their direct objects are *appoint*, *call*, *crown*, *elect*, *name*, etc.

Compare this list of words with the list in 272.

172. It has been seen that the complements of incomplete predicates, or verbs of incomplete predication, are —

1. Direct objects; as, "Try not the *pass*." "What have I done?"

2. Subjective predicate nouns or adjectives; as, "Art thou the *man*?" "It is *I*." "The ocean appears *blue*."

3. Direct objects and objective predicate nouns or adjectives; as, "Ye call *me chief*." "Why call ye *me good*?"

EXERCISE

173. Explain the use of the words in italics, and analyze 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6.

1. Our friends call their home Bellevue.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Call is the incomplete predicate. Its complements are *home*, a direct object, by which it is modified, and *Bellevue*, an objective predicate noun, which modifies *home*. *Home* is also modified by *their*, a possessive pronoun.

OUTLINE

SD		<i>friends</i> ^s
		<i>Our</i> ^{pp}
		<i>call</i> ^v + +
		<i>home</i> ^{do}
		<i>their</i> ^{pp}
		<i>Bellevue</i> ^{opn}

The objective predicate noun is written under the word that it modifies. The two complement signs show that a direct object and an objective predicate noun are needed to complete the meaning of the predicate.

2. They crowned *Victoria queen*. 3. Name it *Jip*.
 4. Why do *they* wish to appoint *him clerk*? 5. Mohammedans call *Mecca* the holy city. 6. The Democratic party elected *Jackson President*. The inhabitants were talking of naming the place *New Lisbon*.

Indirect Objects

174. In the sentence "The President sent Wheeler his commission," the verb *sent* is followed by two nouns that modify it, *Wheeler* and *commission*. The noun *commission* is its direct object. The noun *Wheeler* modifies the verb by representing the person to whom the action expressed by the verb is done. So also in the sentence "General Grant desired to send him more troops," the pronoun *him* modifies the verbal *to send* in the same way. It may be seen that —

Nouns and pronouns may modify verbs and verbals by *representing that to or for which the actions expressed by them are done*. When thus used they are called **indirect objects**. (490.)

175. The **indirect object** of a verb or a verbal can be found by asking a question with *to whom* or *to what* or *for whom* or *for what* before the verb or verbal. If the answer is a noun or a pronoun, it is the *indirect object*; as, "To whom did he give the book?" "He gave *me* the book." "For whom did Ann's mother promise to buy a doll?" "Ann's mother promised to buy *her* a doll." The indirect object expresses the relation usually expressed by *to* or *for*.

176. The principal verbs that may have an indirect object are *allow, ask, bring, buy, get, give, leave, lend, make, offer, pass, pay, present, promise, refuse, send, show, sing, teach, tell, throw, write*, etc.

The indirect object is equivalent to a noun with the preposition *to* or *for* before it; as, "Give *John* his book." "He bears *William* a grudge." "Build *me* a house." "*William* = to William, *John* = to John, *me* = for me." — *Morris*.

EXERCISES

177. Explain the use of the words in italics, and analyze 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6.

1. Give *me* liberty.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Give is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *liberty*, a direct object, by which it is modified. It is also modified by *me*, an indirect object.

OUTLINE

S Im | (you)^s
Give^p +
me^{io}
liberty^{do}

2. Did he show *them* Cæsar's wounds? 3. They have grudged *us* contribution. — *Shak.* 4. Send *thy* children food. 5. He tried to secure my *vote* by promising *me* the position. 6. The Scots sold the *Parliament* their *sovereign*, Charles I. 7. "Give *us* a song," the *soldiers* cried.

178. Copy or compose three sentences containing indirect objects of verbs.

Indirect Objects. (Continued)

179. In the sentence "A man near him was killed," the pronoun *him* modifies the adjective *near* by representing the person whom the man was near. And in "They fought like brave men," the noun *men* modifies the adverb *like* by representing the persons whom they fought like. It may be seen that —

Nouns and **pronouns** may modify a few adjectives and adverbs by *representing that to which the quality is directed*. When thus used they are called **indirect objects** of the words that they modify.

180. The **indirect object** of an adjective or an adverb can be found by asking a question with *whom* or *what*

before the adjective or the adverb. The answer will be the *indirect object*; as, "What did they look *like*?" "They looked *like rosebuds*." "Whom did they fight *like*?" "They fought *like brave men*."

181. The principal adjectives and adverbs that may have an indirect object are *like, near, nigh, opposite, unlike, etc.*

The adjectives *nigh, near, next*, and *like*, both in adjective and in adverbial use, may be and usually are followed by a dative objective directly (without the connective *to*). — *Whitney*.

EXERCISE

182. Analyze the following sentences :

1. They fought like brave men. 2. A man near him was

<i>fought</i> <i>like</i> ^{adv} <i>men</i> ^{to} <i>brave</i> ^{adv}	<i>man-</i> <i>A</i> ^{adv} <i>near</i> ^{adv} <i>him</i> ^{to}
--	--

hurt. 3. No storm like this ever before came so near the city. 4. Burned Marmion's swarthy cheek like fire. — *Scott*.
 5. A noise unlike any earthly sound was now heard.

Adverbial Objects

183. In the sentence "The guns roared all night," the noun *night* modifies the verb *roared* by showing how long the guns roared. In "She tried to walk ten miles," "The river is a mile wide," "He came an hour later," *miles* modifies *to walk* and *mile* modifies *wide* by denoting extent in space, and *hour* modifies *later* by denoting time. It may be seen that —

Nouns and **pronouns** may modify verbs, verbals, adjectives, and adverbs, by *denoting time, extent, degree, manner, or a similar idea*. When thus used they are called **adverbial objects**. (490.)

We may distinguish a word thus used by calling it an adverbial object. — *Whitney*. The adverbial objective case. — *Mason*.

The adverbial object, like the indirect object, is sometimes incorrectly disposed of as the object of a preposition understood. But it is not to be supposed that a preposition was thus inserted in early English. — *Abbott*.

EXERCISE

184. *Explain the use of the words in italics, and analyze 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 7.*

1. He remained an *hour*. 2. Come an *hour* earlier.

remained
hour ^{oo}
an ^{adj}

earlier ^{adv}
hour ^{oo}
an ^{adj}

3. It faces both *ways*. 4. *She* brought *him* the *petition* three *times*. 5. The thieves ran several miles. 6. The *dome* of St. Peter's is fifty *feet* wider and sixty-four *feet* higher than *that* of St. Paul's. 7. Have you ever seen a *river* a *mile* wide?

Objects of Prepositions

185. In the sentence "Washington died at Mount Vernon," the noun *Mount Vernon* is used with the preposition *at* to form a phrase, and it is called the *object* of the preposition. It may be seen that —

Nouns and **pronouns** may be used as the *objects of prepositions*. (40.)

EXERCISE

186. Explain the use of the words in italics:

1. *Queen Mary* was a prisoner in *England* for nineteen years. 2. The *Senate* of the *United States* shall be composed of two *Senators* from each *State*, chosen by the *Legislature* thereof, for six years.

Nouns and Pronouns used Independently

187. When we say, "James, where were you?" "Alas, poor Yorick!" "Ah, me!" the words *James*, *Yorick*, and *me* are not connected in construction with any other words, and are said to be used independently. It may be seen that —

Nouns and pronouns are sometimes used *independently*.

EXERCISE

188. Explain the use of the following nouns and pronouns, and analyze 1, 2, 4, and 7.

1. My father, must I stay?

ORAL ANALYSIS

Father is a noun used independently. It is modified, etc.

OUTLINE

S In	I ^a
	must stay ^p
	father ^{n in}
	My ^{p p}

2. What mean you, Cæsar? 3. Ah, poor me! 4. Boys, do you know your lessons? 5. Webster's Dictionary. 6. Be still, sad heart! 7. Come, Mary.

In addition to the foregoing uses, a few pronouns are used also to ask questions; as, "*Who* discovered Florida?" (351.)

Some pronouns are also used to introduce clauses, and join them to the words that they modify; as, "I know *whom* he saw." "The man *that* came yesterday, left this morning." (248; 355.)

COMPOSITION. — LETTER WRITING

189. Nearly every one writes letters. Old and young communicate with their absent friends by letters; and much of the business of the world is conducted through the medium of written communications. It is not too much to say that letter writing is the most common, as well as the most important, form of written composition.

Why is this subject important? Why should the form in which letters are written be studied?

The first lessons on this subject will present the forms of letters. These letters will be followed by some suggestions with respect to the manner in which letters should be written.

PARTS OF A LETTER

190. *Copy the following letters, and the address on the envelope:*

Leave a narrow margin on the left-hand side of the paper. Indent each paragraph about the width of the margin.

Dear Bettine,

Frankfort, May 12, 1808.

Thy letters give me joy; and Miss Betty, who recognizes them in the address, says, "Frau Rath, the postman brings you a pleasure." Don't, however, be too angry about my son; everything must be done in order. The brown room is newly papered with the pattern that you chose; the color blends peculiarly well with the morning twilight, which breaks over the Catharine-tower and enters into my room. Yesterday our town looked quite holidaylike, in the spotless light of the Alba.

Except this, everything remains as it was. Be in no trouble about the footstool, for Betty suffers no one to sit on it.

Write much, even if it were every day.

Thy affectionate friend,

ELIZABETH GOETHE.

54 Pinckney Street,
Friday, July 8, 1842.

My dear Sir,—Though personally a stranger to you, I am about to request of you the greatest favor which I can receive from any man. I am to be married to Miss Sophia Peabody; and it is our mutual desire that you should perform the ceremony. Unless it should be decidedly a rainy day, a carriage will call for you at half-past eleven o'clock in the forenoon.

Very respectfully yours,
NATH. HAWTHORNE.

Rev. James F. Clarke,
Chestnut Street.

Granite Falls, Minn.,
16 Sept., 1899.

Messrs. B. A. Mann & Co.,
Seattle, Wash.

Dear Sirs,

Will you please send me a price list of your publications, and let me know what discount on the published retail price you give to teachers ordering books of your house?

Yours respectfully,
WILLIAM WHITE.

Stamp

2 cents

Messrs. B. A. Mann & Co.

Seattle

Washington

Where were the foregoing letters written? When were they written? To whom was the first letter written? The second? The third? By whom was the first letter written? The second? The third?

With what should letters begin? What should follow the address of the writer? Where is the date written? With what should a letter end?

How do letters get to the persons for whom they are intended? Why are they put in envelopes? Why must they be stamped? What is the value of the stamp placed on an envelope? Where is it put?

How many paragraphs are in the first letter? In the second?

191. The **parts** of a letter are the *heading*, the *introduction*, the *body*, the *conclusion*, and the *superscription*.

ADJECTIVES

192. The chief use of **adjectives** is simply to modify nouns and pronouns.

For illustrations, see the foregoing sentences. Adjectives thus used may be called attributive adjectives (*a a*). In these outlines they are marked *adj.*

Subjective Predicate Adjectives

193. In the sentence "William Cullen Bryant was old," the adjective *old* modifies the noun *William Cullen Bryant*, and it is also the complement of the verb *was*. (155.) It may be seen that —

Adjectives may be the *complements of verbs* and *modify their subjects*. When thus used they are called **subjective predicate adjectives**. (508, I, note I.)

EXERCISES

194. Analyze the following sentences :

1. He was called wise.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Was called is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *wise*, a subjective predicate adjective, which modifies *he*.

OUTLINE

SD | *He*^s
| *was called*^v +
| *wise*^{pa}

2. The old foreigner's little daughter was ignorant.

3. The haughty barons were powerful. 4. The day has become pleasant. 5. The wall is six feet high.

195. Copy or compose three sentences containing subjective predicate adjectives.

Subjective Predicate Adjectives. (Continued)

196. In the sentence "He desires to be wise," the adjective *wise* modifies the pronoun *he*, and is also the complement of the verbal *to be*. It may be seen that —

Adjectives may be the *complements* of verbals, and *modify the nouns and pronouns to which the verbals refer*. Adjectives thus used may conveniently be called **subjective predicate adjectives**.

EXERCISE

197. Explain the use of the words in italics :

1. Do you desire to become *wise*? 2. He was accused of being *ignorant*. 3. Try to be *brave*. 4. *The old* physician objected to being called *aged*.

Adjectives used Absolutely

198. In the sentence "To be brave is not easy," the adjective *brave* is the complement of the verbal *to be*, but

it does not modify any preceding noun or pronoun. It may be seen that —

Adjectives may be used merely as the *complements of verbals*. In such constructions adjectives are said to be used *absolutely*.

EXERCISE

199. *Explain the use of the words in italics:*

1. To be *good* is better than to be called *good*. 2. It requires *care* to be always *consistent*. 3. *The difficulties* in the way of being *successful* are not *slight*. 4. To desire to become *educated* is commendable.

Objective Predicate Adjectives

200. It has been shown that in the sentence "He was called great," the adjective *great* is the complement of the verb *was called*, and modifies its subject. In the sentence "They called him great," the adjective *great* is the complement of *called*, and modifies *him*. But *him* is the direct object of *called*, and therefore modifies it, and is also a complement of it. The verb *called* has therefore two complements: the pronoun *him*, by which it is modified, and the adjective *great*, which modifies its direct object. So also in "They tried to keep the water hot," in which the verbal *to keep* has two complements: *water*, its direct object, by which it is modified, and *hot*, which modifies *water*. It may be seen that —

Adjectives may be the *complements* of verbs and verbals, and *modify their direct objects*. When thus used they are called **objective predicate adjectives**. (508, I, note 1.)

EXERCISE

201. Analyze the following sentences :

1. We bleached the linen white.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Bleached is the incomplete predicate. Its complements are *linen*, a direct object, by which it is modified, and *white*, an objective predicate adjective, which modifies *linen*.

Linen is also modified by *the*, an adjective.

OUTLINE

SD | *We*^o
 | *bleached* ++
 | *linen*^{do}
 | *the*^{adj}
 | *white*^{opa}

2. The buffaloes tramped the ground hard. 3. The storm stripped the trees naked. 4. Can you plane this board smooth? 5. They left him dead.

In addition to the foregoing uses, a few adjectives are used also to ask questions ; as, “ *Which* route will you take ? ”

Some adjectives are used also to introduce clauses and join them to the words that the clauses modify ; as, “ I shall take *what* money is needed. ” “ Do you know *which* route you will take ? ” (748, 3 ; 748, 4.)

ADVERBS

202. The chief use of **adverbs** is to modify verbs, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

For illustrations, see the foregoing sentences.

Adverbs modifying Nouns and Pronouns

203. In “ Even me, ” the adverb *even* is used to render the pronoun *me* more emphatic, and it is said to modify the pronoun. And in the sentence “ Only Major Washington escaped unharmed, ” the adverb *only* is used in the same way to modify the noun *Major Washington*. It may be seen that —

Some **adverbs** may *modify nouns and pronouns*.

204. The adverbs *only*, *even*, and *merely* are frequently used for this purpose; and when thus used, they are called **adverbs of emphasis**. (819, 9.)

EXERCISE

205. Analyze the following sentences:

1. Even children sometimes deceive us.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Children is modified by *even*, an adverb of emphasis.

OUTLINE

children
Even *adv em*

2. Even philosophers are sometimes mistaken. 3. They were merely children. 4. I saw him only. 5. Only I saw him. 6. I only saw him. 7. I saw only him.

Adverbs are sometimes used to modify phrases and clauses; as, "It fell *just below the falls*." "*Even if I were a beggar*," etc. Sometimes sentences are said to be modified by adverbs; as, "*Truly*, this is the Son of God."

The Adverb of Position

206. In the sentence "No one is here," the subject is found in its usual place before the predicate. But when the sentence begins with *there*, as in "There is no one here," the subject is placed after the predicate. It may be seen that—

The adverb **there** is sometimes used simply to change the relative position of the subject and predicate of a sentence. When thus used, *there* is called an **adverb of position**.

There is the only word used for this purpose. It is also used as an adverb of place. (819, 10.)

EXERCISE

207. Analyze the following sentences:

1. There is no one here.

ORAL ANALYSIS

There is an adverb of position. It is used to change the relative position of *one* and *is*. *One* is the subject, etc.

	OUTLINE
S D	<i>There</i> ^{adv p}
	<i>one</i> ^s
	<i>is</i> ^v
	<i>no</i> ^{adj}
	<i>here</i> ^{adv}

2. There are ten pupils here. 3. There is rest there.

In addition to the foregoing uses, a few adverbs are used also to ask questions; as, "*When* was Florida discovered?" (820, 1.)

Some adverbs are used also to introduce clauses, and join them to the words that the clauses modify; as, "No one knows *when* the hour of death will come." (820, 2.)

LETTER WRITING. (Continued)

Heading of a Letter

208. The **heading** contains the post office address of the writer and the date of writing. It usually occupies two lines. If very short, it may be put on one line; and if very long, it may be put on three lines.

209. The *heading* should begin on the first ruled line of note or letter paper, or about an inch and a half from the top of the page. Each succeeding line should begin about an inch farther to the right than the preceding one.

210. In letters of friendship, the date is frequently written after the signature, beginning at the left margin of the sheet; and the day of the month is written in letters instead of figures; as, *November eighth, 1886*, or, *November eighth, eighteen hundred and eighty-six*. (*Eighth November* is also used.)

EXERCISE

211. *Arrange the following headings properly. (See 190 for punctuation.)*

1. Portland, Oregon, Nov. 8, 1886. 2. 9 East Orange St., Pine Hill, Fla., August 11, 1899. 3. This letter is written at Wheeling, in West Virginia, on the 29th of June, 1899. 4. Jan. 19, 1898, Lancaster Co., Pa., Millersville. 5. Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., May 4, 1889.

The Introduction

212. The **introduction** contains the name and the post-office address of the person written to, and the salutation, or complimentary address.

213. Titles of respect and courtesy should be used in the address. *Mr.* is prefixed to a man's name; *Messrs.* to the names of several men; *Miss* to an unmarried woman's name; *Misses* to the names of several unmarried women; *Mrs.* to a married woman's name; *Rev.* to a clergyman's name, and *Rev. Mr.*, if his Christian name is not used; *Dr.* to the name of the holder of the degree of LL.D., D.D., Ph.D., or M.D.; *Prof.*, sometimes, to the name of a person at the head of a department in an advanced institution of learning. *Esq.* is generally placed after a lawyer's name, and frequently after other gentlemen's names.

Members of the Society of Friends do not use titles, as a rule.

Do not misuse titles, particularly the title *Prof.* Do not write, *Mr. John Smith, Esq.* When LL.D., D.D., Ph.D., or M.D. is placed after the name, the title *Dr.* must of course be omitted.

In addition to the foregoing titles, military titles, and many others, are in common use.

214. The *salutation* is the term of politeness or respect with which we begin the body of a letter. Strangers may be addressed as *Dear Sir*, *Dear Madam*, etc.; friends as *My dear Sir*, *My dear Madam*, *Dear Friend*, etc.; and near relatives and other dear friends as *My dear Wife*, *My dear Mary*, *Dearest Caroline*, etc.

The salutation generally used in business letters is *Dear Sir* (or *Dear Sirs*), or *Dear Madam* (or *Ladies*). *Sir* and *Madam* are very formal.

The salutation should not be too familiar. It should not contain any abbreviations. The word "*Gents*" should never be used.

215. The *arrangement* of the name and address is the same as that of the heading. The first part of the name, or the title, should begin at the marginal line. In business letters, the name and address are generally written immediately after the heading; in letters of friendship, they should be written last.

216. The *salutation* is written on the line below the address (or the heading, if the address is written last). It should begin as far to the right as the other paragraphs of the letter.

It may be remarked here that the title *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, or *Miss* is generally used before the name when speaking to, as well as of, a person. The title *Dr.* is used (in America) in speaking to a physician. *Rev.*, *Hon.*, and *Esq.* should not be used in speaking to a person. If the much-abused title of *Professor* is used, be sure that the person to whom it is applied is entitled to it.

Observe that *Rev.* and *Hon.* are adjectives, and must be preceded by *the* when used in speaking of a person. We may write "Rev. James Goodman," "Hon. U. C. Sharp"; but these expressions must be read, "The reverend James Goodman," "The honorable U. C. Sharp." "Rev. Mr. Goodman" is correct; but not "Rev. Goodman."

EXERCISES

217. Arrange the following headings and introductions properly:

1. Millersville, Lancaster Co., Pa., April 1, 1898. Messrs. Smith & Jones, Milwaukee, Wis. Dear Sirs. 2. This letter is written by Joshua L. Lyte, at No. 111 North Lime Street, in the city of Lancaster, Pa., to his brother, Francis A. Lyte, whose place of business is 301 Central Avenue, Minneapolis, Minn.

218. Write a salutation for a letter to—

1. Your father.
2. A near friend.
3. A schoolmate.
4. A business firm.
5. A distant relative.

VERBALS

Verbals used as Nouns

EXERCISES

219. Explain the use of the following verbals, and analyze 1, 2, 3, 5, and 7.

1. This day will I begin to magnify thee. — *Joshua iii. 7.*

ORAL ANALYSIS

Will begin is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *to magnify*, an incomplete verbal used as a direct object, by which it is modified. The complement of *to magnify* is *thee*, etc.

OUTLINE

<i>SD</i>	<i>I</i> ^s		<i>will begin</i> ^v +
			<i>to magnify</i> ^{vt do} +
			<i>thee</i> ^{do}
			<i>day</i> ^o
			<i>This</i> ^{adv}

2. *To do right* is not easy.
3. *Trying to do* a good deed is *doing* a good deed.
4. What do you expect to gain by *trying* to defeat the measure?
5. It is wrong to steal.¹

6. Hornblende differs from mica in being brittle. 7. It is a difficult task to root out old errors. -

1. *Vl. a. n.*, modifying *it*.

220. Copy or compose two sentences containing verbals used as nouns.

Verbals used as Adjectives

EXERCISES

221. Explain the use of the following verbals, and analyze 1, 2, 4, and 6.

1. The British Government made extensive preparations to crush the rebellion.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Preparations is modified by *extensive*, an adjective, and *to crush*, an incomplete verbal used as an adjective, etc.

OUTLINE

preparations
extensive^{adj}
to crush^{vt} +

2. A soldier lay *dying*. 3. The slate used for roofing houses is a kind of stone. 4. A kind act done quickly is done twice. 5. Magnetite is an iron-black ore of iron, having a black powder. — *Dana*. 6. A man trying to do his duty is a man to be admired. 7. Ney's passage of the frozen Dnieper was one of the most daring feats recorded in history.

222. Copy or compose two sentences containing verbals used as adjectives.

Verbals used as Adverbs

EXERCISES

223. Analyze the following sentences:

1. Marmion stopped to bid adieu. 2. Mortier abandoned the city to join Napoleon. 3. Hearing a noise, I

looked around. 4. The man came running. 5. Jo is very glad to see his old friend. 6. To obtain money to join the First Crusade, Robert sold his duchy.

224. Copy or compose two sentences containing verbals used as adverbs.

Verbals. (Continued)

EXERCISE

225. Analyze the following sentences:

1. James wishes to become a scholar.

OUTLINE	$S D \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{James}^s \\ \textit{wishes}^{p+} \\ \textit{to become}^{vi\ do+} \\ \textit{scholar}^{o\ p^n} \\ \textit{a}^{adj} \end{array} \right.$
---------	--

ORAL ANALYSIS

The complement of *to become* is *scholar*, a subjective predicate noun, which modifies *James*.

2. To become a scholar requires study.

OUTLINE	$S D \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{To become}^{vi\ s+} \\ \textit{scholar}^{n\ ab} \\ \textit{a}^{adj} \\ \textit{requires}^{p+} \\ \textit{study}^{do} \end{array} \right.$
---------	---

ORAL ANALYSIS

To become is an incomplete verbal used as the subject. Its complement is *scholar*, a noun used absolutely.

3. They endeavored to elect Mr. Brown president.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Endeavored is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *to elect*, an incomplete verbal used as the direct object, by which it is modified. The complements of *to elect* are *Mr. Brown*, a direct object, by which it is modified, and *president*, an objective predicate noun, which modifies *Mr. Brown*.

OUTLINE	$S D \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{They}^s \\ \textit{endeavored}^+ \\ \textit{to elect}^{vi\ do+} \\ \textit{Mr. Brown}^{do} \\ \textit{president}^{o\ p^n} \end{array} \right.$
---------	--

4. Some persons wished to crown Washington king.
5. We tried to bleach the linen white.¹ 6. Washington

did not desire to be crowned king. 7. To be called a Christian was once a reproach. 8. To be employed is to be happy.² 9. How often we resolve to be better!³

1. 200. 2. *Adj. ab.*, 198. 3. 196.

COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

Conjunctions joining Words

EXERCISES

226. Analyze the following sentences :

1. When did the French conquer Milan and Genoa?

ORAL ANALYSIS

Did conquer is the incomplete predicate. Its complements are *Milan* and *Genoa*, direct objects, by which it is modified. They are joined by *and*, a coördinate conjunction.

OUTLINE
French^a
the^{adj}
did conquer^p +
Milan^{do}
and^{cc}
Genoa^{do}
When^{adv}

2. They are wise and good men.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Men is modified by *wise* and *honorable*, adjectives joined by *and*, a coördinate conjunction.

OUTLINE
men₋
wise^{adj}
and^{cc}
good^{adj}

3. We are two travelers, Roger and I.

4. Some days must be dark and dreary.

5. Saturn has large rings and belts.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Rings and *belts* are joined by *and*, a coördinate conjunction, and modified by *large*, an adjective.

OUTLINE
Saturn^a
has^p +
rings^{do}
 + *large*^{adj}
and^{cc}
belts^{do}
 +

The sign + is used as a *reference sign* when a word modifies two or more words. In the foregoing sentence, the position of *large* shows that it modifies *rings*; the sign before it, in connection with the sign under *belts*, shows that it also modifies *belts*.

Reference signs are used in pairs. Each one of a pair is marked with a prime ('), a second (''), or a third ('''), for convenience of reference.

6. Old soldiers fight very cautiously as well as¹ courageously. 7. Do you know the moon's weight and size? 8. How regularly and rapidly the earth moves! 9. Loan oft loses both² itself and friend. — *Shak.*

1. *As well as* is a coördinate conjunction. See Index. 2. *Both* modifies the words joined by *and*. (819, 9, note.)

227. Copy or compose a sentence in which nouns are joined by a coördinate conjunction. One in which adjectives are joined. One in which adverbs are joined.

Coördinate conjunctions are also used to join —

Phrases; as, "His goodness is seen *in the heavens above and in the earth beneath.*" (238, 3.)

Sentences; as, *Slight small injuries, and they will become none at all.* — Fuller. (277.)

Clauses; as, "John the Good was succeeded by his son Charles the Wise, *who was of a peaceful disposition, and whose measures did much to restore prosperity in France.*" (257, 5.)

Conjunctions introducing Sentences

EXERCISE

228. Analyze the following sentences:

1. But he came not.

ORAL ANALYSIS

This is a simple, declarative sentence. *But* is a coördinate conjunction; it is used simply to introduce the sentence. *He* is the subject, etc.

OUTLINE

SD	But ^{cc}
	he ^s
	came ^v
	<i>not^{adv}</i>

2. And Maud forgot her brier-torn gown,
And her graceful ankles, bare and brown.

3. He left. But did he remain away?¹

1. No. 3 contains two sentences not connected.

RESPONSIVES AND INTERJECTIONS

EXERCISE

229. Analyze the following sentences :

1. He has gone? Yes. 2. He came too late, alas!

OUTLINES		OUTLINE
S In	$\left \begin{array}{l} \text{he}^s \\ \text{Has gone}^p \\ \text{Yes}^r \end{array} \right.$	$\left \begin{array}{l} \text{he}^s \\ \text{Has gone}^p \\ \text{Yes}^r \end{array} \right.$
	Yes ^r	S D
		$\left \begin{array}{l} \text{He}^s \\ \text{came}^p \\ \text{late}^{\text{adv}} \\ \text{too}^{\text{adv}} \\ \text{alas}^{\text{in}} \end{array} \right.$

ORAL ANALYSIS. — *Yes* is a responsive.

3. Are our minds limited? Yes. 4. Can matter be destroyed? No. 5. Oh, name him not! 6. Alas, Cæsar must bleed!

7. Ah! and should not life be gay?
Yes, Aurelia — come away. — *Dyer*.

LETTER WRITING. (Continued)

Conclusion of a Letter

230. The **Conclusion** contains the complimentary close and the signature.

231. Like the salutation, the *complimentary close* should not be too familiar. In letters of friendship one may use *Your sincere friend*, *Yours affectionately*, *Your loving son*, etc. In business letters the complimentary close is usually *Yours truly* or *Yours respectfully*. *Very* is sometimes added, as, *Yours very truly*; and sometimes the order of the words is changed, as, *Respectfully yours*.

232. *The signature should be plainly written*. In signing business letters and other business papers, men may

use initials instead of the Christian name; women should never do so. Avoid nicknames.

In writing to an entire stranger, a married woman should sign her own name, and, after the signature, give her address in full; as, "Address: Mrs. John Brown, Nantucket, Mass." An unmarried woman should write before her name the title "Miss," inclosed in brackets.

233. The complimentary close is written on the line below the end of the body of the letter. The signature is written on the line below the close, near the right-hand edge of the sheet. The close and the signature should slope to the right, like the heading and address.

Do not close a letter with "*Yours, etc.*" Do not say "*Yours respectively.*"

EXERCISE

234. Write a conclusion for a letter to—

1. Your father.
2. A near friend.
3. A schoolmate.
4. A business firm.
5. A distant relative.

CHIEF USES OF PHRASES

PREPOSITIONS AND PHRASES

235. In the sentence "Education is the evolution of power," the preposition *of* introduces the phrase *of power*, and joins it to the noun *evolution*, which the phrase modifies. And in "Toward the earth's center is called down," the preposition *toward* introduces the phrase *toward center*. It may be seen that—

Phrases are introduced by *prepositions*.

Phrases used as Adjectives

EXERCISES

236. Analyze the following sentences :

1. The layers of most stratified rocks were originally horizontal.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Layers is the subject. It is modified by *the*, an adjective, and *of rocks*, a phrase used as an adjective. *Of* is a preposition, and *rocks* is its object.

Phrases are written under the words that they modify, the words introducing them beginning about the space of four letters to the right.

OUTLINE

S D	<i>layers</i> ^s <i>The</i> ^{adj} <i>of</i> ^p <i>rocks</i> ^o <i>adj</i> <i>most</i> ^{adj} <i>stratified</i> ^{adj} <i>were</i> ^p + <i>originally</i> ^{adv} <i>horizontal</i> ^{adv}
-----	--

2. The great hope of society is individual character. — *Channing*. 3. A bird in the hand is worth¹ two in the bush. 4. The Cañon of the Colorado is a gorge two hundred² miles long.³ 5. Igneous rocks cover thousands of square miles of the western slope of the Rocky Mountains.

1. S. p. a.; p. 326. 2. A. o. of long. 3. It modifies *gorge*.

237. Copy or compose two sentences containing phrases used as adjectives.

Phrases used as Adverbs

EXERCISES

238. Analyze the following sentences :

1. Perfection is attained by slow degrees. 2. By his victory at Rossbach, Frederick the Great¹ recovered the whole of Saxony.

OUTLINE

S D	<i>Perfection</i> ^s <i>is attained</i> ^p <i>by</i> ^p <i>degrees</i> ^o <i>adv</i> <i>slow</i> ^{adj}
-----	--

3. Through fields and through forests he bounded away.

OUTLINE
bounded^v
 | *away*^{adv}
 | *Through*^v *fields*^o
 | *and*^{cc}
 | *through*^v *forests*^o
 | *adv*

5. They marched up and down the hill.

OUTLINE
SD | *They*^o
 | *marched*^v
 | *up*^{v +'}
 | *and*^{cc}
 | *down*^{v +'} *hill*^o
 | *the*^{adv}

4. It lies just below the falls.

OUTLINE
below^v *falls*^o
 | *adv* *the*^{adv}
 | *just*^{adv}

ORAL ANALYSIS. — *Below falls* is modified by *just*, an adverb.

6. Tempering is the process of hardening or softening substances.

OUTLINE
process
 | *of* *hardening*^{vo +}
 | *+*
 | *or*^{cc}
 | *softening*^{vo +}
 | *adv* *+* *substances*^{do}

7. Leaves expose the sap of plants to air and light.
 8. Even from out² thy slime the monsters of the deep are made. 9. Learn to write business papers before attempting to transact business. 10. The capital of Pennsylvania is situated on the left bank of the Susquehanna river.

11. These delicates he heaped with glowing hand
 On golden dishes and in baskets bright
 Of wreathèd silver. — *Keats*.

1. *Frederick the Great* is the subject. 2. *From out* is a preposition. Or, 240, 3, I.

239. *Copy or compose two sentences containing phrases used as adverbs.*

Phrases used as Nouns

EXERCISE

240. Analyze —

1. Toward the earth's center is called down. 2. Toward London is east. 3. He came from among the people.¹

	OUTLINE
S D	Toward ^p center ^o
	earth's ^{p n}
	the ^{adj}
	is called ^{p +}
	down ^{p a}

1. *Among people* is the object of *from*. Or, call *from among* a preposition.

Phrases used Independently

EXERCISE

241. Analyze —

1. In a word, you are wrong.¹

1. By an obvious ellipsis, the phrase is made independent.

	OUTLINE
S D	you ^o
	are ^{p +}
	wrong ^{p a}
	In ^p word ^o
	in a ^{adj}

LETTER WRITING. (Continued)

Folding of a Letter

242. The following simple directions may be of service :

Note paper is folded by turning the bottom up about one third of the length of the sheet, and bringing the top down over this, care being taken that the sides are even. The letter is inserted in the envelope by putting in first the edge last folded, the part of the letter last folded being next the back of the envelope.

Superscription of a Letter

243. The **Superscription** is the address that is put on the envelope. It consists of the name and title of the person to whom the letter is written, and his post office address.

244. The *superscription* should occupy three or four lines. The first line of the superscription should be written just below the middle of the envelope, beginning near the left-hand edge. The lines should slope to the right, as in the heading and address.

245. *Direct plainly.* Write the abbreviation of the State carefully. In writing to a person not living in a large city, give the post office, the county, and the State. If the person written to lives in a large city, give the door number and name of the street, the city, and the State.

EXERCISE

246. *Mark off on slate or paper the size of an envelope (about three and a quarter by five and a half inches), and direct a letter to—*

1. Mr. Charles H. Harding, 26 South 3d St., Philadelphia. 2. Louis C. Lyte, Esq., whose address is Bird-in-Hand, Lancaster Co., Pa. 3. Mrs. Sarah J. Felton, residing in Osborne Hollow, which is in the State of New York, and in Broome Co. 4. H. S. Goodwin, Esq., General Superintendent of the Lehigh Valley Railroad, Bethlehem, Pa. 5. A physician by the name of O. I. Healall, whose residence is in Olympia, Washington.

CHIEF USES OF CLAUSES. ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES

SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIVES

247. In the sentence "I believe that exercise is beneficial," the subordinate conjunction *that* introduces the clause *that exercise is beneficial*, and joins it to the verb

believe, which the clause modifies. Other parts of speech may be used for the same purpose. Thus, in the sentence "I know whom you saw," the clause *whom you saw* modifies the verb *know*, to which it is joined by the pronoun *whom*. In the sentence "I cannot see what flowers are at my feet," the clause *what flowers are at my feet* modifies the verb *can see*, to which it is joined by the adjective *what*. And in the sentence "The tree lies where it fell," the clause *where it fell* modifies the verb *lies*, to which it is joined by the adverb *where*. It may be seen that—

Clauses may be introduced by *subordinate conjunctions*, *pronouns*, *adjectives*, or *adverbs*.

248. Words that introduce clauses and join them to the words that they modify, may be called **subordinate conjunctives**.

Remember that a subordinate conjunctive is a part of the clause which it introduces; and that if it is a pronoun, an adjective, or an adverb, it is construed with some word in the clause.

249. The following words are among those frequently used to introduce clauses, and join them to the words that they modify :

Subordinate conjunctions : *if, because, that, than, whether*, etc. (955.)

Pronouns : *who, which, what, that, whoever, whichever, whoso*, etc. (357.)

Adjectives : *which, whichever, what, whatever*, etc. (748.)

Adverbs : *when, where, as, before, how*, etc. (820, 2.)

EXERCISES

250. *Point out seven clauses in the following sentences, the words that they modify, and the subordinate conjunctives that introduce them :*

1. He liveth long who liveth well. 2. Praise God, from whom all blessings flow. 3. Who shall decide when doctors disagree?—*Pope*. 4. The man who has planted a garden feels that he has done something for the good of the world.—*Warner*. 5. I cannot see what flowers are at my feet.—*Keats*. 6. The first row of trammels and pothooks which the little Shearjashubs and Elkanahs blotted and blubbered across their copybooks was the preamble to the Declaration of Independence.—*Lowell*.

251. *Copy or compose a sentence containing a subordinate conjunction. One containing a conjunctive pronoun. One containing a conjunctive adjective. One containing a conjunctive adverb.*

Subordinate Conjunctives. (Continued)

252. In the sentence "That the earth is round is well known," the clause *that the earth is round* is the subject of the verb *is known*. The subordinate conjunction *that* is used simply to introduce the clause. The pronoun *what* and the adverb *why* are used for the same purpose in "What you do, should be done quickly;" "Why he went, is evident." It may be seen that—

Subordinate conjunctives are sometimes used simply to introduce clauses

CLAUSES

Clauses used as Adjectives

EXERCISES

253. Analyze the following sentences :

1. An idler is a watch that wants both hands. — Cowper.

ORAL ANALYSIS

This is a complex, declarative sentence, etc. *Watch* is modified by *a*, an adjective, and *that wants both hands*, a clause used as an adjective. *That* is the subject of the clause ; it is used also as a subordinate conjunctive. *Wants* is the incomplete predicate ; its complement is *hands*, etc.

In outlining a clause, first select the word that it modifies, or with which it is construed.

Then select its subject and predicate, and the word by which it is introduced. Clauses are written under the words that they modify, beginning about the space of four letters to the right.

OUTLINE

Cx D	<i>idler</i> ^s <i>An</i> ^{adj} <i>is</i> P- + <i>watch</i> ^{s P} <i>a</i> ^{adj} <i>that</i> ^{s s c} <i>wants</i> ^{P +} <i>hands</i> ^{s o} <i>both</i> ^{adj}
------	---

2. Those who play with edge tools must expect to be cut. 3. No pleasure from which¹ our health suffers is innocent.

4. The province was named Pennsylvania, which means Penn's woods.

5. Many of the men whose² inventions have been of great practical value were mechanics.

6. I am monarch of all I survey. 7. Kindness is the golden chain by which society is bound together. — Goethe.

8. The sorrow for the dead³ is the only sorrow from which we refuse to be di-

OUTLINES

adj	<i>health</i> ^s <i>our</i> ^{P P} <i>suffers</i> ^P <i>from</i> ^P <i>which</i> ^{s s c} <i>adv</i>
of all -	<i>I</i> ^s <i>survey</i> ^{P +} <i>(that)</i> ^{s s c}

forced. — *Irving*. 9. General Kléber, whom Napoleon had left in command of the French army in Egypt, was assassinated by a fanatical Mohammedan.

10. We paused amid the pines that stood
The giants⁴ of the waste. — *Shelley*.

1. Notice carefully the place of *from which* in the outline. 2. *P. p., s. c.* 3. Object of *for*. 4. 159.

254. Copy or compose three sentences containing clauses used as adjectives.

Clauses used as Adverbs

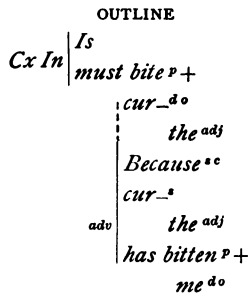
EXERCISES

255. Analyze the following sentences :

1. Because the cur has bitten me, must I bite the cur?

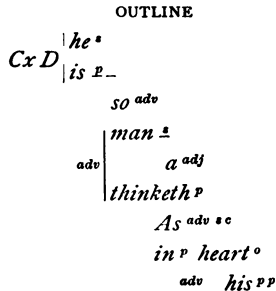
ORAL ANALYSIS

Must bite is also modified by *because the cur has bitten me*, a clause used as an adverb. *Because* is a subordinate conjunction. *Cur* is the subject of the clause, etc.



2. As a man thinketh in his heart, so is he. — *See Prov. xxiii. 7.*

3. Contentment is better than wealth.¹ 4. Substances that rise in air are lighter than air. 5. It beareth the name of Vanity Fair, because the town where² it is kept is lighter than vanity. — *Bunyan*.



6. Is it as wise to be great as it is to be good?

wise ^{1 p a}
as ^{adv}

It ^{2 -}
to be ^{3 a n +}
great ^{adj ab}

(wise) ^{1 p a}
as ^{adv c c}

7. Come as the winds come when navies are stranded.

winds
come
as ^{adv c c}

navies
are stranded
when ^{adv c c}

8. Love thy neighbor as thyself.⁸ 9. The stoical scheme of supplying our wants by lopping off our desires, is like⁴ cutting⁵ off our feet when we want shoes. — *Swift*.

10. Some murmur when their sky is clear
 And wholly bright to view,
 If one small speck of dark appear
 In their great heaven of blue. — *Trench*.

1. *Than wealth (is good)* modifies *better*. 2. *Where* introduces an adjective clause. 3. 85. 4. 193. 5. *Vl., i. o.*

256. Copy or compose three sentences containing clauses used as adverbs.

Clauses used as Nouns

EXERCISES

257. Analyze the following sentences

1. Do you believe that the earth is round?

ORAL ANALYSIS

This is a complex, interrogative sentence. *You* is the subject. *Do believe* is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *that the earth is round*, a clause used as a direct object, by which it is modified. *That* is a subordinate conjunction. *Earth* is the subject of the clause, etc.

OUTLINE

Cx In | *you* ^a
 | *Do believe* ^{p +}
 | *that* ^{c c}
 | *earth* ^a
 | *the* ^{adj}
 | *is* ^{2 - +}
 | *round* ^{1 p a}

2. That the earth is round is well known.

ORAL ANALYSIS

This is a complex, declarative sentence. *That the earth is round* is a clause used as the subject. *That* is a subordinate conjunction. *Earth* is the subject of the clause, etc. *Is known* is the predicate of the sentence, etc.

If you find that it is difficult to outline some of the following sentences, give the written construction of each word separately, and you will then be able to see how the sentence is constructed. Frequently, the most difficult word to dispose of is the subordinate conjunctive. Notice whether it is a pure subordinate conjunction, or a pronoun, adjective, or adverb.

OUTLINE

Cx D		<i>That</i> °°
		<i>earth</i> °
		<i>the</i> adv
		<i>is</i> 2-+
		<i>round</i> ° P °
		<i>is known</i> P
		<i>well</i> adv

OUTLINE

Cx D		<i>Homer</i> °
		<i>was born</i> P
		<i>Where</i> adv ° °
		<i>is</i> 2-+
		<i>unknown</i> ° P °

3. Where Homer was born is unknown.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Was born is the predicate; it is modified by *where*, an adverb. *Where* is used also as a subordinate conjunctive.

OUTLINE

<i>in</i> P	<i>saying</i> ° ° +
<i>adv</i>	<i>do</i> <i>I</i> °
+ '	<i>mean</i> P +
	<i>what</i> do ° °
	+ ' <i>just</i> adv ° °

4. "My diplomacy," said a famous statesman, "consists in saying just what I mean."

ORAL ANALYSIS

What I mean is modified by *just*, an adverb of emphasis.

5. Consider well what your strength is equal to, and what exceeds your ability. — *Horace*.

OUTLINE

Cx Im		<i>(you)</i> °
		<i>Consider</i> P +
		<i>well</i> adv
do		<i>strength</i> °
		<i>your</i> P P
		<i>is</i> 2-+
		<i>equal</i> ° P °
		<i>to</i> P <i>what</i> ° ° °
		<i>and</i> ° ° ° <i>adv</i>
do		<i>what</i> ° ° °
		<i>exceeds</i> P +
		<i>ability</i> ° °
		<i>your</i> P P

6. Whatever is, is right.

OUTLINE

$Cx D$		s	<i>Whatever</i> ^{do}
			<i>is</i> ^p
			<i>is</i> ₂ - +
			<i>right</i> ^{pp}

8. That will depend on what he receives.

OUTLINE

$Cx D$		<i>That</i> ^s
		<i>will depend</i> ^p
		<i>on</i> ^p <i>he</i> ^s
		<i>receives</i> ^p +
		<i>what</i> ^{do}

ORAL ANALYSIS

Will depend is modified by *on what he receives*, a phrase used as an adverb. *On* is a preposition, and *what he receives* is a clause used as its object, etc.

7. Whatever you do, do as well as you can.

OUTLINE

$Cx Im$		<i>(you)</i> ^s
		<i>do</i> ₂ - +
		<i>you</i> ^s
		<i>do</i> ₂ - +
		<i>Whatever</i> ^{do}
		<i>well</i> ^{adv}
		<i>as</i> ^{adv}
		<i>you</i> ^s
		<i>can (do)</i> ^p +
		<i>(it)</i> ^{do}
		<i>(well)</i> ^{adv}
		<i>as</i> ^{adv}

9. Whoso keepeth the law, is a wise son. — *Prov. xxviii. 7.* 10. They will take what is needed.

11. They will take what they need. 12. This will depend on who the trustees are. 13. Shame may restrain what law does not prohibit. — *Seneca.* 14. That you have wronged me doth appear in this. — *Shak.* 15. We attend to what we hear more closely than to what we read. — *Wickersham.*

258. Copy or compose two sentences containing clauses used as nouns.

Analysis. (Continued)

259. Analyze the following sentences :

1. If you wish to enjoy the pleasure of resting, you must work. 2. Come while our voices are blended in

song.—*Holmes*. 3. If England could have communicated with America by telegraph, the battle of New Orleans would not have been fought.¹ 4. Whither² I go ye cannot come. 5. We know what³ master laid thy keel.—*Longfellow*. 6. If you wish to find the best apples in the orchard, go to the tree under⁴ which⁵ the clubs lie.

7. Justice, while she winks at crimes,
Stumbles on innocence sometimes.—*Butler*.

8. What is the name that is given to instruments used for measuring heat? 9. Write it on your heart that⁶ every day is the best⁷ in the year.—*Emerson*. 10. Benedict Arnold, who had incurred vast debts by his extravagance, was charged by Congress with having committed fraud while⁸ military governor of Philadelphia.

1. Why not? 2. *Adv., s. c.* 3. *What (adj., s. c.)* modifies *master*, and joins the clause to *know*. 4. The preposition *under* introduces the phrase *under which*, and joins it to *lie*. 5. *Which* introduces the clause *under which the clubs lie*, and joins it to *tree*. 6. The clause introduced by *that* is used in apposition with *it* (*a n*). 7. Supply *day*. 8. What two words must be supplied?

LETTER WRITING. (Continued)

Body of a Letter

260. The **body** of a letter contains what the writer wishes to say to the person to whom the letter is written.

261. Letters are intended to take the place of conversation, and are therefore less formal than other kinds of composition.

262. *Letters of Friendship* should be natural and easy in style. Their greatest charm is their unaffected simplicity. Remember that your friends will be interested in

whatever you are interested in. Do not fill your letters with apologies. Do not feel that you must write a long letter, whether you have anything to say or not. Write freely, but never lose sight of the fact that what you are writing may be read by strangers.

263. *Business Letters* should relate to business only. They should be clear and direct in style. No more words than necessary should be used, but care must be taken not to make the letter so brief as to be in any degree obscure.

264. *Letters of Application* should be written with great care. They take the place of the writer, and at once create an impression either favorable or unfavorable. One who applies for a position should state his qualifications frankly. Do not overstate them. Always give references.

265. In answering a letter, it is a good plan to begin by acknowledging its receipt. In acknowledging the receipt of a business letter, give its date, and make a brief reference to its contents; as, "Your letter of the 21st inst., inquiring for a clerk, was received this morning."

266. The beginning of the body should generally be written on the line below, and under the end of, the salutation. If the introduction is long, the body of the letter should begin on the same line as the salutation. (190.)

267. Make new paragraphs when necessary. Do not use & for *and* except in writing the name of a firm. Do not write "Our 2 friends," but "Our two friends." Do not begin with "I" if you can avoid it. Do not be guilty of the affectation of always omitting the pronoun *I*. Write plainly and neatly; spell and syllabify correctly; punctuate properly; follow the rules of grammar; use capital letters correctly. (Correct the following: "*Dear Sir*,— Your favor received and was pleased to get order," etc.)

268. Reply promptly to every letter requiring an answer; adapt the style of the letter to the person and the subject; never write anything improper or imprudent; read every letter before sealing it, and examine the superscription before mailing it; do not mix business and friendship in a letter; *always be courteous*; stamp every letter before mailing it; place the stamp on the upper right-hand corner of the envelope, about one eighth of an inch from each edge; inclose a stamp for return postage, if the answer is for your exclusive benefit.

269. Write —

EXERCISE

1. *A letter to Ruebush, Kieffer & Co., Dayton, Rockingham Co., Va., using your own name and address, and the following body:*

A late number of "The Musical Million" contains a beautiful song, entitled "Sweet Sabbath Eve." Will you please inform me whether the song is published in sheet form, and if so, where and at what price it can be obtained?

2. *A letter to Paul Wiseman, LL.D., Mount Intelligence, Chippewa Co., Minn., asking for a catalogue of the school of which he is principal.*

3. *The following letter to a dear friend:*

There will be a picnic held in Gibbons's woods next Saturday, and we are all going to it. Won't you go with us? Mother says I am to ask you to come to our house on Friday evening and stay until Monday. Do come, my dear —; we shall all expect you, and shall be greatly disappointed if you are not with us.

We intend to boat and fish, and hunt wild flowers; so come prepared to have a good time, and bring clothes with you that will not be hurt by mud and water.

4. *An answer, accepting the foregoing invitation.*
5. *An answer, thanking your friend for the invitation, and expressing regret that it is impossible for you to accept it.*

ABRIDGED CLAUSES

270. The three essential parts of an unabridged clause are the *subject*, the *predicate*, and the *subordinate conjunctive*. (51, 248.)

Sometimes the subordinate conjunctive is omitted, and should be supplied; as "I am sure (*that*) he did it." "The soldiers (*that*) they captured were Hessians." "Were I you, I would go" (= *If I were you, I would go*).

271. Some clauses have only two essential parts, the *subject* and the *predicate*. They are called **abridged clauses**.

EXAMPLES.—"I desire *him to go*." "*Spring having come*, all nature is clothed in beauty." "Let *him go*."

272. The verbs *believe*, *consider*, *declare*, *make*, *think*, and some others, are sometimes followed by abridged clauses in which the verb *to be* is understood; as, "I believed him my friend" (= I believed him *to be* my friend). "He thought me (*to be*) wrong."

273. In some sentences an abridged clause can be used in place of a clause containing three essential parts without varying the sense; as, "I believed *him to be dead*" (= *that he was dead*). "*Spring having come*, all nature is clothed in beauty" (= *As spring has come*, etc.). "He finds *the task to be difficult*" (= *that the task is difficult*). "I find *them (to be) good men and true*" (= *that they are*,

etc.). "The engineer ordered *the signal to be given*" (= *that the signal be given*). "The troops were reported to have been engaged" (= *That the troops were engaged*, was reported).

But it is often impossible to substitute an unabridged clause for the abridged clause without changing the sense, and sometimes no substitution can be made. EXAMPLES. — "He felt *himself sinking*" (almost equivalent to "He felt *that he was sinking*"). "I heard *her sing*" (not "I heard *that she sang*"). "I saw *them run*." "I saw *them running*." "Let *us go*." "Hath not old custom made *this life (to be) more sweet?*" "It is too warm for *them to travel*."

274. It must be remembered (1) that the term *abridged clause* is appropriately applied to these clauses because they have but *two essential parts*, and (2) that an abridged clause is not a mere abridgment of a clause.

Abridged Clauses used as Adverbs

EXERCISE

275. Analyze the following sentences:

1. This done, repair to Pompey's porch.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Repair is also modified by *this being done*, an abridged clause used as an adverb. *This* is the subject, and *being done* is the predicate, *being* being understood.

OUTLINE

Cx Im		(you) ^s	
		repair ^v	
		to ^v porch ^o	
		adv	Pompey's ^{pn}
		This ^s	
		(being) done ^v	

2. Spring having come, all nature is clothed in beauty.
3. Shame being lost, all

virtue is lost. 4. He being a foreigner, his family was protected. 5. This said, he sat down. 6. The ammunition being exhausted, the troops surrendered. 7. You sleep in peace, the tyrant being slain.—*Shak.* 8. The cat away, the mice play. 9. These injuries having been comforted internally, Mr. Pecksniff having been comforted externally, they sat down. 10. The soldiers being alert, the fort was not attacked.

11. My story being done,
She gave me for my pains a world of sighs. —*Shak.*

Abridged Clauses used as Nouns

EXERCISE

276. Analyze the following sentences:

1. Do you believe the earth to be round?

ORAL ANALYSIS

Do believe is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *the earth to be round*, an abridged clause used as the direct object, by which it is modified. *Earth* is the subject of the clause, etc.

OUTLINE

Cx	In	you^s $Do\ believe^p +$
		$earth^s$ the^{adj} $to\ be^p +$ $round^{p^a}$

2. His being a foreigner protected him. 3. The Cretans were believed to be liars.

OUTLINE

Cx	D	His^s $being^p +$ $foreigner^{p^a}$ a^{adj} $protected^p +$ him^{a^o}
------	-----	--

OUTLINE

Cx	D	$Cretans^s$ The^{adj} $to\ be^p +$ $liars^{p^a}$ $were\ believed^p$
------	-----	---

4. It is too warm for them to travel.

ORAL ANALYSIS

Warm is modified by *too*, an adverb, and *for them to travel*, a phrase used as an adverb. *For* is a preposition, and *them to travel* is an abridged clause used as its object. *Them* is the subject of the clause, and *to travel* is the predicate.

OUTLINE

Cx D | It^s
 | is?_+
 warm^{pp}
 too^{adv}
 for? | them^s
 | to travel^v
 adv

5. Let us go.¹ 6. The rain causes the grass to grow.
 7. He felt himself sinking. 8. He finds the task² difficult. 9. We did not hear of the troops crossing the river.³
 10. All men think all men mortal but themselves. — *Young*.
 11. They made Claudius emperor. 12. Claudius was made emperor.² 13. They are known to have perished among the icebergs. 14. Success depends upon his remaining true⁴ to the cause.⁵ 15. A lively writer has not hesitated to pronounce⁶ Colchis the Holland of antiquity.⁷
 16. The soldiers being believed to be alert, the fort was not attacked. 17. I know where to go.⁸ 18. The Son of Man hath not where to lay his head.
 19. The general told them when to advance. 20. It was said of General Grant that he did not know how to retreat.

OUTLINE

Cx D | I^s
 | know?
 do | —
 | to go?
 where^{adv}

1. *Go* is the predicate of the clause, not *to go*. 2. Supply *to be*. 3. Is this sentence ambiguous? 4. *S. p. a.* 5. See Outline 4. The phrase *to cause* modifies *true*. 6. *Vi., adv.* 7. What must be supplied? 8. *Where to go* is an abridged clause the subject of which is omitted. It is equivalent to *where I shall go*. Usually, the essential elements of an abridged clause are the subject and predicate. (271.) Under what conditions is the subject omitted?

Sometimes, though rarely, abridged clauses are used as *adjectives*; as, "I met two men, *each carrying a pistol*."

ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES

EXERCISE

277. Analyze the following sentences :

1. Doubt vanished with Smoke, and Hope began with Flame. — *Mitchell*.

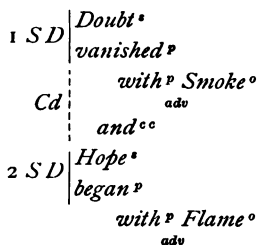
ORAL ANALYSIS

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two members joined by *and*, a coördinate conjunction.

The first member is a simple, declarative sentence. *Doubt* is the subject. *Vanished* is the predicate, etc.

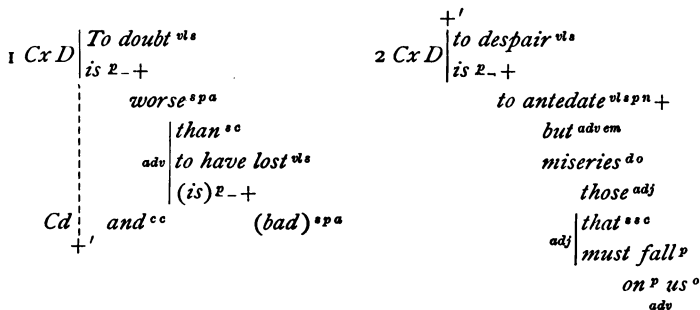
The second member is a simple, declarative sentence. *Hope* is the subject, etc.

OUTLINE



2. To doubt is worse than to have lost; and to despair is but to antedate those miseries that must fall on us. — *Massinger*.

OUTLINE



Space may sometimes be economized by writing the second member of a compound sentence to the right of the first, as shown above. The sign '+' indicates the connection between the two members.

3. Art is long and Time is fleeting,
 And our hearts, though stout and brave,
 Still, like muffled drums, are beating
 Funeral marches to the grave. — *Longfellow*.

ORAL ANALYSIS

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two members joined by *and*, a coördinate conjunction.

The first member is a compound sentence, consisting of two members joined by *and*, a coördinate conjunction. The first member of this sentence is a simple, declarative sentence, etc. The second member is a simple, declarative sentence, etc.

The second member of the sentence is a complex, declarative sentence, etc.

The marks ('), (''), ('''), etc., are used when the members of a sentence are compound, to show the relative rank of the parts joined. Thus "1' Cd" and "2' CxD" are subordinate to "Cd," and coördinate with each other. "1'' SD" and "2'' SD" are subordinate to "1' Cd" and coördinate with each other. It will be seen that it is not necessary to use these marks unless a sentence contains one or more *compound members*.

OUTLINE

1'' SD	Art ^s
	is \underline{p} -+
1' Cd	long ^{spp}
	and ^{cc}
2'' SD	Time ^s
	is \underline{p} -+
Cd	fleeting ^{sppa}
	And ^{cc}
	hearts ^s
2' CxD	our ^{pp}
	are beating ^p +
	marches ^{do}
	Funeral ^{ads}
	to ^p grave ^o
	Still ^{adv} ^{ads} the ^{ads}
	like ^{adv}
	drums ^{io}
	muffled ^{ads}
	though ^{cc}
	adv (they) ^s
	(are) \underline{p} +
	stout ^{sppa}
	and ^{cc}
	brave ^{sppa}

4. God made the country, and man made the town. — *Cowper*. 5. Good nature will supply the place of beauty, but beauty cannot long supply the place of good nature. — *Addison*. 6. Difficulties strengthen the mind, as well as¹ labor does the body. — *Seneca*. 7. What we know

here is very little ; but what we are ignorant of is immense. — *Laplace*.

8. Be thou the first true merit to befriend ;
His praise is lost, who stays till all commend. — *Pope*.

9. Napoleon's troops fought in bright fields, where every helmet caught some beams of glory, but the British soldier conquered under the cool shade of aristocracy ; no honors awaited his daring, no dispatch gave his name to the applauses of his countrymen ; his life of danger and hardship was uncheered by hope, his death unnoticed. — *Napier*.

10. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty ; open thine eyes, and thou shalt be satisfied with bread. — *Prov. xx. 13*.

1. See 226, 6.

Compound Sentences with Common Elements

EXERCISE

278. Analyze the following sentences :

1. Here the old man toiled and his children thoughtlessly played.

ORAL ANALYSIS

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two members joined by *and*, a coördinate conjunction, and containing an element common to both members.

The first member is a simple, declarative sentence, etc. *Toiled* is the predicate.

The second member is a simple, declarative sentence, etc. *Played* is the predicate ; it is modified by *thoughtlessly*, an adverb.

Toiled and *played* are modified by *here*, an adverb.

OUTLINE

	<i>man</i> ^s
1 S D	<i>The</i> ^{adj}
	<i>old</i> ^{adj}
	<i>toiled</i> ^v
Cd	+' <i>and</i> ^{cc}
	<i>children</i> ^s
2 S D	<i>his</i> ^{pp}
	<i>played</i> ^v
	<i>thoughtlessly</i> ^{adv}
	+' <i>Here</i> ^{adv}

2. When the president came, the audience took their seats and the speaker began to deliver his address.

3. I slip, I slide, I gleam, I glance,
Among my skimming swallows. — *Tennyson*.

Contracted Compound Sentences

EXERCISE

279. Analyze the following sentences:

1. Time and tide wait for no man.

ORAL ANALYSIS

This is a contracted compound, declarative sentence. *Time* and *tide* are the subjects, joined by *and*, a coordinate conjunction, etc.

OUTLINE

C C d D	Time ^s	
	and ^{cc}	
	tide ^s	
	wait ^v	
		for ^p man ^o
		adv no ^{adj}

2. You are young, and have the world before you; stoop as you go through it, and you will miss many a hard thump. — *Mather*.

3. He who would free from malice pass his days,
Must live obscure, and never merit praise. — *Gay*.

Partial compound sentences are analyzed like contracted compound sentences.

NOTES

280. **Notes** are briefer than letters, and generally more formal. They are frequently used for invitations, replies, etc.

Invitations should be answered promptly. The answer to an invitation given by a lady and gentleman should be addressed on the envelope to the lady only.

EXERCISES

281. *Copy the following notes :*

Mr. and Mrs. Brown request the pleasure of Mr. and Mrs. Smith's company at dinner on Monday evening, March twenty-ninth, at seven o'clock.

Bird-in-Hand, 20th March.

Mr. and Mrs. Smith accept with pleasure Mr. and Mrs. Brown's kind invitation for Monday evening, March twenty-ninth.

Lancaster, March 22, 1897.

Mr. and Mrs. Smith greatly regret that intended absence from home prevents them from accepting Mr. and Mrs. Brown's kind invitation for Monday evening, March twenty-ninth.

Lancaster, March 22, 1909.

Los Angeles, Cal.,

July 11, 1899.

Dear Mr. Monroe,

Can you call at my office this evening about seven? The list of books needed for the high school was handed to me yesterday, and I would like to have you examine it with me.

Yours truly,

J. A. FOSHAY.

282. *Write the following notes :*

1. An invitation to a friend to attend an evening party at your house.
2. A reply, accepting the invitation.
3. A reply, declining the invitation, with regrets.
4. A note to a friend, requesting the loan of a book.
5. An invitation to a birthday party.

283. *The following subjects for letters are suggested:*

1. To an absent schoolmate, about school affairs.
2. From a doll to her mistress.
3. To your mother, describing your school life.
4. From a dog to his master.
5. From a spider to a fly.
6. Reply of the fly.
7. To Santa Claus.
8. To a distant cousin.
9. To a dear friend, who is very ill.
10. To a friend, giving your opinion of the political outlook.

ANALYSIS. (Continued)

284. *Analyze the following sentences :*

1. The lightest known substance is hydrogen.
2. O Liberty! my spirit felt thee there. — *Coleridge*.
3. My motto: Work and wait.

4. Night's candles are burnt out, and jocund day
Stands tiptoe on the distant mountain tops. — *Shak*.

5. The noblest mind the best contentment has. — *Spenser*.
6. Conscience, her first law broken, wounded lies.
7. She let no morsel from her lippes fall. — *Chaucer*.

8. The fittest place where man can die
Is where he dies for man. — *Barry*.

9. Tin and lead form the valuable alloy called solder.
10. What a world of merriment their melody foretells!
— *Poe*.
11. I am satisfied that we are less convinced by what we hear than by what we see. — *Herodotus*.
12. Roll on, thou deep and dark blue Ocean, roll! — *Byron*.

13. Suspicion always haunts the guilty mind;
The thief doth fear each bush an officer. — *Shak*.

14. To refuse to do a bad thing is to do a good one.
— *Westlake*.
15. Character is what we are; reputation,

what others think us to be. 16. Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself saw all things. — *Cicero*.

17. Trust no Future, howe'er pleasant!
Let the dead Past bury its dead! — *Longfellow*.

18. Be not deceived: evil communications corrupt good manners. — *1 Cor. xv. 33*. 19. Ground-glass globes are made by forcing a jet of sand against the glass. 20. If you would do what you should not, you must bear what you would not. — *Franklin*.

21. New laws from him who reigns new minds may raise
In us who serve. — *Milton*.

22. A good name is worth gold. — *Shak*. 23. The tutor breakfasts on coffee made of beans,edulcorated with milk watered to the verge of transparency. — *Holmes*.

24. How sharper than a serpent's tooth it is
To have a thankless child. — *Shak*.

25. Any coward can fight a battle when he's sure of winning; but give me the man who has pluck to fight when he's sure of losing. — *George Eliot*. 26. A ruler who appoints any man to an office, when there is in his dominion another man better qualified for it, sins against God and against the state. — *Koran*.

27. Then with eyes that saw not, I kissed her;
And she, kissing back, could not know
That *my* kiss was given to her sister,
Folded close under deepening snow. — *Lowell*.

28. The French National Convention, which assembled at Paris in 1792, decreed that royalty was abolished in France, and thereafter time, instead of being reckoned from the birth of the Savior, should be reckoned from the 22d of September, 1792, the birthday of the French

Republic. 29. The cynic who twitted Aristippus by observing that the philosopher who could dine on herbs might despise the company of a king, was well replied to by Aristippus when he said that the philosopher who could enjoy the company of a king might also despise a dinner of herbs.

30. New occasions teach new duties; Time makes ancient good uncouth;

They must upward still and onward, who would keep abreast of Truth. — *Lowell*.

What punctuation marks are used in the foregoing sentences? Why are they used? What is a substance? Hydrogen? What are "night's candles"? What is tin? Solder? Do you agree with Herodotus (11)? Why is the ocean blue? Who was Gyges? What are ground-glass globes used for? What is the meaning of "edulcorated"? "Verge"? "Transparency"? "Dominion"? Where is Paris? Who was Aristippus? What do you know of the authors of the foregoing sentences?

How are sentences classified? How are the elements of sentences classified as to form? As to use? What parts of speech may be used as subjects? To what part of speech does the predicate belong? What parts of speech may be used as modifying elements? As connecting elements? What words are independent elements? What is a verb of incomplete predication? What parts of speech are used as complements of predicates? As objects? How many kinds of objects may verbs have? How do they differ? What parts of speech may modify nouns? Verbs? Adjectives? Adverbs? Verbals? How may phrases be used? By what part of speech are phrases

introduced? How may clauses be used? What parts of speech may be introduced to introduce clauses? How are unabridged clauses and abridged clauses distinguished? How may nouns and pronouns be used in sentences? Illustrate. Adjectives? Illustrate. Adverbs? Illustrate.

USE OF WORDS

285. Ideas are expressed by words. Most persons have learned their native tongue largely by imitation, and make little if any conscious effort to select the fittest words in which to express their ideas. If one has listened to the conversation of cultured persons and has read well-written books, he has probably acquired a good vocabulary which he can use with readiness and accuracy.

286. If a word is to become a part of one's vocabulary, it should be in good general use at the present time. The meaning given to each word should be sanctioned by good usage, and only such words should be selected as will exactly express the meaning intended.

Rules for selecting Words

287. In the *selection of words*, the following rules should be observed :

1. Use words in their *proper sense*.

When you are in doubt about the meaning of a word, look for it in the dictionary. Read the sentence given in the dictionary to illustrate its use, as well as the definition. (287, 11.) Do not attempt to use a word the meaning of which you do not know.

WORDS FREQUENTLY MISUSED

Above, for *more than*; as, "Above a hundred." ("The *above* words" should probably be "The *foregoing* words.")

Accord, for *grant*; as, "He *accorded* me the privilege."

Aggravate, for *provoke* or *irritate*.

Alone, for *only*; as, "By man *alone*."

Allow, for *say*, *assert*, or *intend*.

Animal, for *brute*.

Any, for *at all*; as, "He was not hurt *any*."

Apt, for *likely* or *liable*; as, "It will be *apt* to rain."

Awful or **awfully**, for *exceedingly*, *very*; **awful**, for *ugly*, *disagreeable*, etc.; as, "It is *awfully* hard." "His conduct was *awful*."

Back, for *ago*; as, "Some time *back*."

Bad, for *ill* or *sick*.

Balance, for *rest* or *remainder*; as, "The *balance* of the night."

Bound, for *determined*.

Couple, for *two*; as, "I have a *couple* of dollars."

Every, as in "*every* praise."

Except or **without**, for *unless*; as, "I will not go, *except* you go."

Expect, for *suppose* or *think*; as, "I *expect* it rained last night."

Female, for *woman*.

Get, for *have*. (*Get* implies exertion.)

Grow, for *become*; as, "It *grows* smaller every day."

In respect of, for *in respect to*.

Locate, for *place*.

Partially, for *partly*.

Plenty, for *plentiful*; as, "Fruit is *plenty* this year."

Quantity, for *number*.

Recollect, for *remember*. (When we do not *remember*, we try to *recollect*.)

Remit, for *send*; as, "Remit the money."

Some, for *somewhat*; as, "He is *some* better."

Tell apart, for *distinguish*; as, "I could not *tell* them *apart*."

Tough, for *hard*, *severe*; as, "A *tough* problem." "A *tough* winter."

Try, for *make*; as, "Try the experiment."

2. In ordinary speaking and writing, give persons and things their *plain names*.

When you can choose between a long word and a short one, always take the short word. Which shall we say — “We went home,” or “We proceeded to our residence”? “He was thanked,” or “He was the recipient of grateful acknowledgments”?

Concrete terms produce more vivid impressions than abstract ones.

3. In choosing between words that have nearly the same meaning, select the *fittest word*.

Words that have the same or nearly the same meaning, are called *synonyms*. Usually, synonyms have the same general meaning, with shades of difference; as, *answer* and *reply*, *robber* and *thief*.

Be especially careful in the choice of adjectives. Do not speak of a “nice” beefsteak, a “nice” morning, a “nice” companion, etc. Do not call Niagara Falls “lovely” or “pretty.” Remember that a spider is not the “awfulest creature you have ever seen.”

4. Avoid expressions not in good use. Among these are —

After a bit, a long mile, another one, both alike, by good rights, clear out (for *go away*), *cracked up* (for *praised*), *done up brown, frustrated, for good and all, have got to go, never let on, noways, head over heels, off of* (for *off*), *says I, thinks I*, etc.

To this list may also be added slang words and phrases, “words” that are not words, tautological expressions, obsolete words, etc. (See 5, 6, 7.)

5. Do not use *slang words* or *phrases*.

Slang phrases are vulgar. It is said by some that an idea or a thought is sometimes better expressed by a slang phrase than in any other way. If this is true, it is probable that the idea or thought should be unexpressed.

6. Do not use “words” that are not words.

A word must be in good general use before we are allowed to employ it in composition.

Among the "words" we should not use are *ain't*, *anywheres*, *firstly*, *heighth*, *illy*, *rumpus*, *specs*, *unbeknown*, etc.

7. Avoid *tautological* and *redundant expressions*.

TAUTOLOGIES. — *False misrepresentations*, *frosty rime*, *funeral obsequies*, *leafy foliage*, *new beginner*, *sylvan wood*, etc.

REDUNDANCIES. — "I have *got* a cold." "He looks at it with *an eye of contempt*." "I have no leisure *at my command*."

8. Do not use *new combinations* of words.

Avoid such expressions as "a go-as-you-please race"; "a buy-goods-when-you-need-them rule"; "the never-too-often-to-be-repeated reason," etc.

9. Do not use *obsolete words*.

10. As a rule, avoid *foreign words* and *phrases*.

Which shall we say — "This is *à propos*," or "This is appropriate"? "Keep this *inter nos*," or "Keep this between ourselves"?

11. Study the dictionary and add to your vocabulary.

Make it a rule to refer to a dictionary whenever the meaning of a word is not fully understood. In an unabridged dictionary may be found (1) the spelling of a word; (2) its pronunciation; (3) the part of speech to which it belongs; (4) its derivation; (5) its definition, and (6) its use illustrated. How does a dictionary indicate the part of speech to which a word belongs? Why is this necessary?

To acquire a good vocabulary, (1) read good books carefully; (2) talk with cultured persons; (3) avoid low companions; (4) keep a list of new words, and learn their meaning and use; (5) study etymology; (6) memorize selections of poetry and prose.

12. The parts of speech that need especial attention are pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbals, and prepositions.

As a rule, a relative pronoun should not be omitted when it is the subject of a finite verb; as, "Which is the one struck him?" In poetry the relative is occasionally omitted, but with some loss of clearness; as, "Tis distance lends enchantment to the view." Frequently a relative

used as the object of a verb or preposition is omitted, but in many cases it would be better to use the relative; as, "The man we saw is a sailor." "I met the man he referred to." What is incorrect in the following sentences? "If any one needs assistance, they may report at the office." "I never saw such a man as him." "It lost its eye." "That's not him."

One of the commonest errors made by writers usually accurate is illustrated in the following sentences. Can you correct them? "Having completed the discussion of perception, memory will be presented." "Looking beyond the pickets, Morro Castle could be seen." "A large fish was seen, while walking near the stream."

EXERCISES

288. *Use simple expressions for—*

1. She retired to her downy couch. 2. He expired in indigent circumstances. 3. An elevated apartment. 4. Pharmaceutical chemist. 5. They proceeded to the sanctuary.

289. *Correct the following errors:*

1. Look back for one short moment into the past that has gone and left us. 2. She has a nice smile. 3. A drink of cool water is nice on a hot, midsummer day. 4. He stood speechless in our midst without uttering a sound. 5. He don't enthuse his audience a bit.

290. *Fill the blanks with words from the following list:*

Bravery, courage; conduct, behavior; petition, request; to bury, inter; clothe, dress; healthy, healthful, wholesome.

1. She is ——. 2. The climate is ——. 3. The food is ——. 4. The air is ——. 5. The king received their ——. 6. All nature is — in beauty. 7. They — in the height of fashion. 8. Savages are — in skins.

9. The soldiers — gallantly. 10. The — of Charles I. was dignified. 11. The man of — faces danger calmly. 12. — men are sometimes rash. 13. He — his face in his hands. 14. General Meade was — with imposing ceremonies. 15. The poor animal was —.

291. *The following foreign expressions are among those in frequent use. Can you find English equivalents for them? (See dictionary.)*

FRENCH TERMS. — *Billet-doux, boudoir, coup d'état, esprit de corps, protégé, tête-à-tête.*

LATIN TERMS. — *Ad libitum, ad valorem, alias, alma mater, bona fide, contra, et cetera, exempli gratia* (contracted *e.g.*), *ex officio, ibidem* (con. *ibid.*), *idem* (con. *id.*), *id est* (con. *i.e.*), *ignis fatuus, in statu quo, nota bene* (*N.B.*), *per se, pro* and *contra* (con. *pro* and *con.*), *pro tempore, sine die, verbatim, versus, via, viz., vice, vice versa.*

292. Words combined with Prepositions

(FOR REFERENCE)

Accept, with or without <i>of</i> .	Anxious <i>for, about</i> , sometimes <i>on</i> .
Access <i>to</i> .	Appropriate <i>to</i> .
Accommodate one thing <i>to</i> another; a person <i>with</i> a thing.	Approve, with or without <i>of</i> .
Accompanied <i>by, with</i> .	Arrive <i>at, in, from</i> .
Accuse <i>of</i> (not <i>with</i>).	Ask <i>of</i> (a person), <i>for</i> , sometimes <i>after</i> (a person or thing).
Acquit <i>of</i> .	Attend <i>to</i> (listen), <i>upon</i> (await).
Adapted <i>to</i> , sometimes <i>for</i> .	Bestow <i>on</i> or <i>upon</i> .
Admission <i>to</i> (access), <i>into</i> (entrance).	Call <i>on</i> or <i>upon</i> (a person), <i>for</i> (a person or thing), <i>at</i> (a house), <i>in</i> (question), <i>after</i> (a person), <i>by</i> (a name).
Admit <i>to, into, of</i> ¹ .	Care <i>for, about, of</i> .
Advantage <i>of, over</i> .	Charge a crime <i>against</i> or <i>on</i> a person, a person <i>with</i> a crime.
Agree <i>with</i> (a person), <i>among</i> (ourselves), <i>to</i> (a thing), <i>upon</i> (a thing), <i>in</i> (doing something).	Coincide <i>with</i> .
Amuse <i>with, at, in</i> .	
Angry <i>with</i> (a person), <i>at</i> (a thing).	

- Compare *with* (in quality), *to* (for illustration).
- Comparison *with, between*.
- Concur *with* (a person), *in* (an opinion).
- Confide *in* (a person) (a thing *to* a person).
- Congratulate *on* or *upon*.
- Connect *with* (an equal), *to* (a superior).
- Contend *with* (a person), *for* (an object), *against* (an obstacle).
- Convert *into*, sometimes *to*.
- Copy *from* (a thing), *after* (a person).
- Correspond *with, to*.
- Covered *by, with*.
- Danger *of, sometimes from*.
- Deal *with*, rarely *by*.
- Defend *from*, sometimes *against*.
- Demand *of, from*.
- Depend *on* or *upon*.
- Dependent *on*.
- Desire *for, of, sometimes after*.
- Devolve *on* or *upon*.
- Die *of, sometimes with* or *from* (a disease), *by* (an instrument).
- Differ *among* (ourselves), *from* (one another), *from*, sometimes *with* (in opinion), *about, concerning* (a question), *from* (in quality).
- Difference *with* (a person), *between* (two things).
- Direct *to, toward*.
- Disagree *with* (a person), *to* (a thing proposed).
- Distinguished *for, from*, sometimes *by*.
- Enter *into, in, on, upon*.
- Entertain *by* (a person), *with* (a thing).
- Equal *to, with*.
- Escape *from*, sometimes *out of*.
- Familiar *to* (us), *with* (a thing).
- Favorite *of, with*.
- Followed *by*.
- Frightened *at*.
- Glad *of, rarely at*.
- Graduate *at, from, in*.
- Grieve *at, for*.
- Hatred *to, of*.
- Impatient *with* (a person), *at* (one's conduct), *of* (restraint), *under* (affliction), *for* (something expected).
- Incorporate *into, with*.
- Indulge *with* (one thing), *in* (a habit).
- Inquire *after, about, concerning, for, into, of*.
- Insight *into*.
- Introduce *to* (a person), *into* (a place).
- Intrust *to* (a person), *with* (a thing).
- Irritated *by* (a person), *by, sometimes at* (an action).
- Join *with* (an equal), *to* (a superior).
- Killed *by* (a person), *with* (a thing).
- Listen *for* (something to be heard), *to* (something heard).
- Love *of, for*.
- Make *of, out of, from, with, for*.
- Married *to*.
- Mix *with, in*.
- Mortified *with, at*.
- Name *after, from* (not *for*).
- Necessary *to, for*.
- Necessity *for, of*.
- Need *of* (not *for*).
- Objection *to*, sometimes *against*.
- Oblivious *of*.
- Obtain *from, of*.
- Occupy *with, by, in*.
- Offended *with, at, by*.
- Opinion *on, about*.
- Opportunity² *for, of*.
- Opposition *to*.
- Originated *with, in*.
- Parallel *to, with*.
- Partake *of*¹.
- Partiality *to, for*.
- Pity *on*.
- Possessed *of, by, with*.
- Prefer *to, rarely before*.
- Prejudice *against* (not *to, for, or in favor of*).
- Present *to*.
- Protect *from, against*.
- Punish *by* (a person), *with* (a penalty), *for* (a crime).

Put *into, in*.
 Receive *of, from*.
 Recline *upon, on*.
 Rely *on or upon*.
 Remedy *for, sometimes against*.
 Repine *at* (what is), *for* (what is not).
 Respect *for, to*.
 Search *for, after, out*.
 Seized *by* (a person), *with* (illness).
 Sick *of, with*.
 Situated *on* (a road), *in* (a street).

Smile *at* (frequently unfavorably), *upon, or on* (favorably).
 Surprised *at, by, sometimes with*.
 Surround *by, with*.
 Sympathize *with* (a person), *in* (his sorrow).
 Sympathy *with, between, sometimes for*.
 Think *of, about, sometimes on*.
 Vexed *with, at*.
 Wait *for* (await), *on or upon* (attend).
 Want *of, with*.
 Yoke *with*.

1. This preposition may be omitted. 2. An infinitive may follow this word.

FIGURES OF SPEECH

293. Words are sometimes used in a sense that differs from that in which they are ordinarily used; as, "He is like a *fox*." "He is a *fox*." "*Gray hairs* should be respected." "How many *hands* do you employ?" These deviations from the ordinary mode of expression are used to add beauty or strength to a sentence.

What words might be used instead of *gray hairs*? *Hands*? Instead of a *fox*, in the second example? What is figurative language?

294. A **figure of speech** is a deviation from the ordinary mode of expression.

295. Among the commonest figures of speech are—

1. **Simile.**—A *simile* is a figure in which one object is compared with another not of the same kind; as, "He shall be like a *tree* planted by the rivers of water."

Similes are introduced by *like* or *as*.

2. **Metaphor.**—A *metaphor* is a figure in which the name or some action or quality of one object is applied

to another that resembles it; as, In peace, thou art the *gale* of spring.—*Ossian*. “The *tottering* state.” “*Virgin* snow.”

3. **Metonymy**.—A *metonymy* is a figure in which the name of one object is used to represent another object that is associated with it.

The name of the *cause* is sometimes used to represent the *effect*, and *vice versa*; as, “Read *Shakspeare*” [his works]. “*Gray hairs* [old age] should be respected.”

The name of the *sign* is sometimes used to represent the *thing signified*; as, “*Bayonets* [soldiers] think.”

The name of the *container* is sometimes used to represent the *thing contained*; as, “The *kettle* [the water in the kettle] boils.”

Allegory may be regarded as sustained metonymy.

4. **Synecdoche**.—A *synecdoche* is a figure in which the name of a part is used to represent the whole, or the name of the whole is used to represent a part; as, “*Fifty sail* [vessels] were in the harbor.” “Our *hero* [his hair] was gray.”

Synecdoche is a special form of metonymy.

5. **Personification**.—*Personification* is a figure in which inanimate objects or abstract qualities are regarded as persons; as, “Come, gentle *Spring!* Ethereal *Mildness*, come!” “*Mercy* and *truth* are met together; *righteousness* and *peace* have kissed each other.”

6. **Hyperbole**.—A *hyperbole* is a figure in which an exaggerated expression is used to increase the vividness of a statement without creating a false impression; as, “They were *swifter than eagles*; they were *stronger than lions*.”

7. **Irony**.—*Irony* is a figure in which the meaning suggested by the statement is contrary to the literal meaning;

as, "Brutus is an honorable man." "Cry aloud; for he is a god."

8. **Apostrophe.**—*Apostrophe* is a figure in which the absent are addressed as if they were present; as, "O *Death*, where is thy sting?" "Ye *crag*s and *peak*s, I'm with you once again."

Apostrophe is usually a special form of personification.

296. Care should be taken (1) to use appropriate figures, (2) not to mix figures, and (3) not to join literal and figurative expressions. Are the following sentences correct?

1. Unravel the obscurity.
2. Clinch the thread of thought.
3. It is the center and foundation of the system.
4. The mind is the center of spiritual forces and stands above them, like a queen on her throne.
5. The gentle rain beats against the window.

EXERCISES

297. *What kinds of figures are found in the following sentences?*

1. His spear was like the mast of a ship.
2. The pen is mightier than the sword.
3. She has seen eighteen summers.
4. Thy word is a lamp unto my feet and a light unto my path.
5. Come as the winds come.
6. Thirty head of cattle are in the meadow.
7. Address the chair.
8. Thou art my rock and my fortress.
9. The day is bright with hope.
10. How shallow are his thoughts!
11. He has a warm heart.
12. O Grave, where is thy victory?
13. Woe unto thee, Chorazin!
14. They are members of the bar.
15. He rode a wheel.
16. His brow is crowned with laurels.
17. The sun at noon

looked down and saw not one. 18. Russia now holds the Sultan in the hollow of her hand. 19. Cry aloud, for he is a god. 20. He wore a diamond as large as a goose egg. 21. His knowledge of the subject is boundless.

22. I slip, I slide, I gleam, I glance,
 Among my swimming swallows;
 I make the netted sunbeams dance
 Against my sandy shallows.

298. *In the following sentences, change the figurative to plain language:*

1. He is in the morning of life. 2. He smokes his pipe.
 3. The future is a sealed book. 4. They have Moses and the prophets. 5. Let us not listen to the voice of temptation. 6. The pen is mightier than the sword. 7. The snows of eighty winters whitened his head. 8. The music was like the memory of joys that are past. 9. Metropolisville grew like Jonah's gourd. 10. Ten thousand stars were in the sky. 11. Let the curtains of the future hang. 12. The conscious water saw its God, and blushed.

299. *Use each of the following words both literally and figuratively:*

1. Steal.¹ 2. Sword. 3. Stand. 4. Illuminate.
 5. Cover. 6. Rest. 7. Paint. 8. Fruits. 9. Fly.
 10. Sepulcher.

1. The thief *stole* the goods. I love to *steal* awhile away.

PART III

CLASSES AND PROPERTIES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH



300. Words are divided according to their use in sentences, into ten classes, called **parts of speech**.

301. The ten parts of speech are —

Nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, verbals, prepositions, conjunctions, responsives, and interjections.

The parts of speech are not something that grammarians have invented, for they are given in nature, and had only to be discovered. — *Earle*.

COMPOSITION AND DERIVATION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

302. *Read the following words :*

Man, run, stack, hay, haystack, teaspoon, tree, manly, running, beggar, four-leaved, misconduct.

Which of the foregoing words are formed of two words? Which are formed of other words by adding a syllable? By prefixing a syllable? Which words cannot be reduced to a simpler form?

303. Words can be divided according to their form into three *classes* : *simple, compound, and derivative*.

304. A *simple word* is a word that cannot be reduced to a simpler form ; as, *man, horse, black*.

305. A *compound word* is a word formed by uniting two or more words ; as, *mankind, good-natured, blackboard*.

In many compound words the first word modifies the second. *Rosebush* means a certain kind of bush ; *spoon-meat*, a certain kind of food, etc.

The use of the hyphen between the parts of compound words is to some extent a matter of taste. *Rainbow, balance-reef, seed-lac, gray-beard*, are formed alike. We frequently see *book-keeping, bookkeeping*, and *book keeping*.

306. A *derivative word* is a word formed by adding a prefix or a suffix to a word ; as, *dislike, unhorse, manly, blackish*.

307. A *prefix* is a syllable or word placed at the beginning of a word to vary its meaning ; as, *dislike*.

308. A *suffix* is a syllable or word placed at the end of a word to vary its meaning ; as, *manly*.

Prefixes and suffixes are called *affixes*.

In the wide sense of the term, *derivation* includes *composition*.

INFLECTION

309. *Read the following :*

1. Lion, lioness ; lion, lions ; I, you, he ; I, me. 2. I shall go to-morrow. 3. We went yesterday. 4. My brother may go. 5. I am old, but he is older.

Does the word "lion" represent a male? How does it change its form to represent a female? Does it change its form to represent more than one? Does the pronoun "I"

represent the speaker? Which does "you" represent, the speaker, or the person spoken to? What time does the verb "shall go" refer to? "Went?" What is the difference between "old" and "older"?

Many of the foregoing words vary in form, to indicate a variation in their use; and they are said to have certain *properties*, and to be *inflected*. See "Properties," p. 324.

310. A **property** of a part of speech is a variation in its use and form.

311. **Inflection** is a variation in the form of a part of speech, to indicate a variation in its use.

312. Parts of speech may be *inflected*—

1. By adding one or more letters; as, *book, books; slow, slower, slowest; die, dying, died.*

2. By changing the vowel sound; as, *man, men; come, came; begin, began, begun.*

3. By using an additional word; as, *go, shall go, may go, might have gone; slowly, more slowly, most slowly.*

The third mode of inflection gives rise to properties that otherwise would not be found in English; *e.g.* passive voice, potential mood, the future tenses, the perfect tenses, the comparison of certain adjectives and adverbs, etc.

Some grammarians attempt to reject the third mode of inflection, but not always with success.

313. The inflection of nouns and pronouns is called **declension**. The inflection of verbs is called **conjugation**. The inflection of adjectives and adverbs is called **comparison**.

314. Verbals are inflected like verbs. Prepositions, conjunctions, responsives, and interjections are not inflected.

RULES FOR SPELLING

315. The following **Rules for Spelling** are of service in inflecting words :

Rule 1. Final *e* is dropped when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added ; as, *come, coming ; love, lover ; wise, wiser.*

EXCEPTIONS. — Final *e* is retained (1) after *c* and *g* when the suffix begins with *a* or *o* ; as, *changeable, peaceable* ; (2) after *o*, as *shoeing* ; and (3) when it is needed to preserve the identity of the word ; as, *dyeing, singeing.*

Rule 2. Final *e* is retained when a suffix beginning with a consonant is added ; as, *wise, wisely ; pale, paleness.*

EXCEPTIONS. — A few words drop *e* ; as, *true, truly ; awe, awful ; wise, wisdom,* etc.

Rule 3. Final *y* preceded by a consonant is changed to *i* when a suffix not beginning with *i* is added ; as, *try, tried ; merry, merrily ; happy, happier ; dry, driest, drying.*

EXCEPTIONS. — *Beauteous, bounteous, duteous, piteous, plenteous, shyness, slyly, spryer,* etc.

Rule 4. Final *y* preceded by a vowel is not changed when a suffix is added ; as, *joy, joyful ; day, daylight.*

EXCEPTIONS. — A few words take *i* : *laid, lain, said, daily, paid,* etc.

Rule 5. The final consonant of a monosyllable, or a word accented on the last syllable, is doubled when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added, if the consonant is preceded by a single vowel ; as, *hot, hotter ; fit, fitting ; begin, beginning ; prefer, preferred.*

EXCEPTIONS. — The letters, *x, k,* and *v* are not doubled. *S* in *gas* is not doubled ; as, *gas, gases.*

Rule 6. The final consonant is not doubled when a suffix is added, if the consonant is not preceded by a single vowel, if the suffix does not begin with a vowel, or if the word is not accented on the last syllable; as, *sail, sailing; hot, hotly; benefit, benefiting.*

EXCEPTIONS. — *Crystalline, tranquillity.* Some authors write *traveller, cancelled, marvellous, worshipper, etc.*

After vocals and subvocals, *s* has the sound of *z*. After aspirates, *d* has the sound of *t*.

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

NOUNS

316. A **noun** is a word used as a name.

Or, a *noun* is a word used to represent an object by naming it.

317. A **word** from another part of speech, a letter, a character, or a sign, is sometimes used as a noun; as, "*Truly* is an adverb." "*A* is a vowel." "Dot your *i*'s." Every *why* hath a *wherefore*. — *Shakspeare*. "◊ is called a whole note." "+ is the sign of addition." See also 219, 240, and 257.

318. **Adjectives** are frequently used as nouns; as, "The *pure* in heart." "The *good* die young."

CLASSES OF NOUNS

319. *Read the following:*

1. I will send James to help you. 2. I will send a boy to help you. 3. Millersville, village, city, Boston.

When I say, "I will send James," what word do I use to show which boy is meant? Does the name "James"

distinguish James from other boys? When I say, "I will send a boy," does the name "boy" distinguish one boy from the others? Is the name "boy" common to all boys? Can the name "village" be applied to all villages? Can the name "Millersville" be applied to all villages? Why not? What is the difference between "city" and "Boston"?

320. Nouns are divided into two chief classes: *proper nouns* and *common nouns*.

321. A **proper noun** is a name given to an object to distinguish it from other objects of the same class. Illustrate.

322. Proper nouns, and adjectives derived from proper nouns, should begin with *capital letters*. Illustrate.

323. A **common noun** is a name that is common to all objects of the same kind or class. Illustrate. .

324. Common nouns also include names of materials, or **material nouns**; as, *gold, silver, cloud, rain, stone, rack, wheat, corn*, etc.

Sun, earth, moon, world, are called common nouns. Why?

325. When a proper noun may be applied to each individual of a class of persons that resemble one another in certain qualities, it becomes a **common noun**; as, "Some mute, inglorious *Milton* here may rest." "The *Germans* are at work." (Several persons from Germany.) "The *Cicero* of his age." "A second *Daniel*."

326. Many common nouns are derived from proper nouns; as, *davy* (a miner's lamp), from the name of the inventor, Sir Humphry Davy; *morocco, china*, from the

name of the country from which the article comes. Give other examples.

327. When a common noun is used to distinguish an object from others of the same class, it becomes a **proper noun**; as, "A drive in the *Park*."

328. A name that is given to a group of objects to distinguish it from other groups of the same class, is a **proper noun**; as, "The *Germans* are industrious." (The people of Germany.) "The *Canaries*."

329. A **collective noun** is the name of a collection considered as one object; as, *pair, dozen, group, regiment, family, tribe, mob, jury, people, audience, committee*, etc.

330. An **abstract noun** is the name of a quality or an action, which is considered without reference to the object to which it belongs; as, *breadth, blackness, brightness, color, distance, weight, wealth, honesty, rapidity, death*, etc. From what parts of speech are abstract nouns derived?

Collective nouns and *abstract nouns* are common nouns. Why?

EXERCISES

331. Write ten common nouns, and five proper nouns belonging to the class of objects named by each common noun, thus:

City; Boston, Paris, Berlin, Rome, Peking.

332. Point out the collective and abstract nouns in the following:

1. The discretion of a man deferreth his anger. — *Prov. xix. 11.*
2. O the blasting of the fever! — *Longfellow.*
3. Six

families lost their lives. 4. The strength of the army was not known.

5. Be a woman! On to duty!
 Raise the world from all that's low;
 Place high in the social heaven
 Virtue's fair and radiant bow. — *Edward Brooks.*

333. *Form abstract nouns from the following words:*

Climb, good, high, long, run, study, true, veracious, virtuous, wide.

Compound Nouns

334. The principal classes of **compound nouns** are the following:

1. A noun preceded by a noun which modifies it adjectively; as, *sunrise, seashore, cornfield, innkeeper, steamboat, churchyard, railway, sunshade.*

2. A noun preceded by a verb; as, *washtub, drawbridge, spitfire, makeweight.*

3. A noun preceded by an adjective; as, *blackbird, quicksilver, ill-will, Englishman, midday, twilight (twi=two).*

4. A noun preceded by an adverb; as, *inlet, forethought, offshoot, bypath, neighbor* (AS. *neáhgebūr* = "one who dwells near").

5. A noun preceded by a preposition; as, *forenoon.*

Derivative Nouns

335. The principal classes of **derivative nouns** are the following:

1. Nouns derived by the use of prefixes; as, *disbelief, ex president, misconduct, unrest.*

The principal prefixes are *un* (= not) and *mis* (OE. *mys* = evil).

2. Nouns derived by the use of suffixes.

1) Abstract nouns: (1) from adjectives, as *goodness*, *wisdom*, *wickedness*; (2) from verbs, as *running*, *walking*, *growth*; (3) from nouns, as *childhood*, *earldom*. (330.)

The principal suffixes are *ness*, *dom* (= condition or sphere of action), *ing*, *hood* (*head*) (AS. = person, condition, state), *ship* (*scape*) (= fashion, shape), *th* (*t*, *d*).

2) Diminutive nouns from other nouns; as, *gosling*, *leaflet*, *lambkin*, *hillock*, *Annie*.

Principal suffixes: *en*, *kin*, *let*, *ling*, *ock*, *y* (*ie*, *ey*).

3) Nouns denoting an actor, from verbs; as, *teacher*, *lover*, *liar*, *spinster*.

Principal suffixes: *er* (*ar*), *ster* (originally denoting a female agent), *ter*.

4) Nouns denoting business, occupation, etc., from other nouns; as, *lawyer*, *organist*.

EXERCISE

336. *Form nouns from the following words:*

Adjectives: ill, secure, swift, certain, gay.

Verbs: teach, study, follow, clothe, write.

Nouns: martyr, priest, duel, agreement, ring, hill, flower, sense, man, Christ.

PRONOUNS

337. A **pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun.

Or, a *pronoun* is a word used to represent an object without naming it.

338. A **pronoun** may also be used instead of another pronoun, a phrase, or a clause; as, "*He who* studies, will improve." "*Toward the earth's center* is down, but *it* is

not always so regarded." "Do you know *that Gen. Grant is dead?*" "Yes; I heard *it* yesterday."

339. The word, the phrase, or the clause, for which a pronoun is used, is called its **antecedent**.

340. The *antecedent* of a pronoun is sometimes omitted; as, To *him* who in the love of nature, etc. — *Bryant*.

341. The *pronoun* is sometimes omitted; as, Truth is the highest thing a man may keep. — *Chaucer*. (Supply *that*.) 'Tis distance lends enchantment to the view. — *Campbell*.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

342. *Read the following sentences:*

1. I know who came. 2. Do you know the man who came? 3. What did he say? 4. I saw the man that came. 5. I saw the — that came. 6. This is mine. 7. This book is mine. 8. Another came. 9. Another speaker rose.

Which pronoun in the first sentence shows by its form that the speaker is meant? In the second sentence, which pronoun shows by its form that the person spoken to is meant? Does "he" represent the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person spoken of?

What kind of sentence is the third? Which pronoun is used to ask a question?

In the first sentence, which pronoun introduces a clause and joins it to the word that the clause modifies? In the second? In the fourth? What is the antecedent of "that," in the fourth sentence? Does "that" represent a male, or a female? The person speaking, the person

spoken to, or the person spoken of? One, or more than one? How can you tell? In the fifth sentence, does "that" represent a male, or a female? One, or more than one? Why can you not tell? Is not "that" closely related to an antecedent? Why is it? In the third sentence, does "he" represent a male, or a female? One, or more than one? Is "he" closely related to an antecedent? Why not? Is "who," in the first sentence? Why not?

What is the subject of "is," in the sixth sentence? Of "came," in the eighth? What adjective modifies "book"? "Speaker"?

343. Pronouns are divided into four classes: *personal pronouns*, *interrogative pronouns*, *conjunctive pronouns* (including *relative*), and *adjective pronouns*.

Personal Pronouns

344. A **personal pronoun** is a pronoun that shows by its form whether the speaker is meant, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of. Illustrate.

345. The personal pronouns are *I*, *thou* or *you*, *he*, *she*, and *it*, with their declined forms and their compounds.

In old English *hē* (he), *hēo* (she), and *hit* (it) were formed from the same root. The plural of each pronoun was *hīe*, *heorð*, *him*.

346. Words formed by adding *self* or *selves* to *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *him*, *her*, *it*, and *them*, are called **compound personal pronouns**; as, *myself*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *themselves*. Why are they called compound?

347. *Compound personal pronouns* generally are used—

1. For emphasis; as, "For he *himself* hath said it."
2. In a reflexive sense; as, "He struck *himself*."

348. The pronoun *it* is sometimes used —

1. Indefinitely; as, “*It* rains.” “*It* is I.” (*The person.*) “What was *it* that you saw?” (*The thing.*) I made up my mind to foot *it*. — *Hawthorne.*

2. As a preparatory word. When thus used, it is followed by an explanatory word, phrase, or clause; as, “*It* is wrong *to steal.*” “*It* is believed by all nations *that the soul is immortal.*”

349. The pronoun *thou* is used instead of *you* —

1. In the Bible; as, “*Thou* shalt not kill.”

2. In addresses to the Deity; as, “Be *Thou* our guide.”

3. Frequently in poetry; as, I’ll not leave *thee, thou* lone one. — *Moore.*

4. Among Friends (Quakers), as the “plain language”; as, “Is this *thy* book?”

350. *Thou, thy, thine, thee, thyself,* and *ye* are said to be in the *old* or *solemn* style. They should not be used with pronouns or verbs in the common style. (703.)

Interrogative Pronouns

351. An **interrogative pronoun** is a pronoun used to ask a question. Illustrate.

Interrogative pronouns do not have antecedents expressed.

352. The interrogative pronouns are *who* (*whose, whom*), *which*, and *what*.

353. *Who* is used to ask about persons; as, “*Who* came with John?” “*Who* was Aaron Burr?”

354. *Which* and *what* are used to ask about persons or things; as, “*Which* is Mary?” “*Which* is my hat?”

What art thou? — Milton. *What* does little birdie say? — Tennyson.

Which generally inquires for a particular one of two or more; *what* generally inquires for a description. Illustrate.

The pronoun *what* is sometimes used in an exclamatory sense, and it may then be called an *exclamatory pronoun*; as, *What* must be their depravity! — Sheridan.

Whether is an interrogative pronoun in "Whether of them twain did the will of his father?" Find this quotation.

Conjunctive Pronouns

355. A **conjunctive pronoun** is a pronoun used to introduce a clause and join it to the word that the clause modifies. Illustrate.

356. A **relative pronoun** is a conjunctive pronoun that is closely related to an antecedent. Illustrate.

357. The conjunctive pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, *as*, *what*, and possibly *but*, with their declined forms and their compounds.

358. Words formed by adding *ever* or *soever* to *who*, *which*, and *what*, are called **compound conjunctive pronouns**; as, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whatever*. (Also, *whoso*.)

359. *Who* (*whose*, *whom*) and *which* are used as ordinary conjunctive pronouns and as relatives; *what* and the compound pronouns are used only as pure conjunctives; *that*, *as*, and *but* are used only as relatives.

360. Care must be taken to distinguish between the ordinary conjunctive pronoun and the relative pronoun. They are alike in that they both join clauses to the words that the clauses modify. They

differ in that the ordinary conjunctive pronoun does not have an antecedent expressed, while the relative pronoun is closely related to an antecedent. Examine the following sentences :

ORDINARY CONJUNCTIVE (Called <i>Conjunctive Pronouns</i>)	RELATIVE CONJUNCTIVE (Called <i>Relative Pronouns</i>)
I know <i>who</i> came.	I know the man <i>who</i> came.
I remember <i>which</i> the hard problems are.	I remember the hard problems <i>which</i> we solved.
Take <i>what</i> is needed.	Take that <i>which</i> is needed.
I know <i>what</i> is needed for the completion of the work.	Spirit <i>that</i> breathest through my lattice. — <i>Bryant</i> .
We shall admit <i>whoever</i> comes.	Such <i>as</i> I have, give I thee.

In such sentences as "Who steals my purse steals trash," the antecedent *he* is usually supplied, and *who* is called a relative pronoun. Strictly speaking, however, *who* is a conjunctive pronoun, and the clause *who steals my purse* is the subject of steals. So with *that* in "Take that thine is," etc.

361. *Who* is used in referring to persons, and to other objects regarded as persons; as, "Can you tell *who* wrote 'Beautiful Snow'?" *They* never fail *who* die in a great cause. — *Byron*. A fox *who* had been caught in a trap was very glad to save his life by the loss of his tail. — *Fable*.

362. The conjunctive *which* is used in referring to persons or things; as, "Do you know *which* of those gentlemen assisted him?" "Ascertain *which* of these books he wants." The relative *which* is now used in referring to things, and animals inferior to man; as, "The flowers *which* bloom." "The horse *which* ran." Formerly *which* was used to refer to both persons and things; as, Our Father *which* art in Heaven. — *Matt. vi. 9*. Not he *which* says, etc. — *Shak*. The celerity *which*, etc. — *Shak*.

363. The conjunctive *what* is used in referring to things (rarely to persons); as, *What* in me is dark illumine.

— *Milton*. How I wonder *what* will please her! —
Mary Lamb.

364. The relative *that* is used in referring to both persons and other objects; as, Wealth is not *his that* has it, but *his that* enjoys it. — *Franklin*. Which is the *wind that* brings the flowers? — *Stedman*.

365. *That* is preferred to *who* or *which* —

1. When both persons and other objects are referred to; as, "The horse and his rider, *that* plunged into the river, were swept away by the current."

2. Generally after *all, any, each, every, no, same, or some*; as, "All *that* I have is thine."

3. Frequently in limiting, or restrictive, clauses; as, The sound of a door *that* is opened. — *Longfellow*. (Not all doors; a limiting, or restrictive, clause.) "It was a beauty *that* I saw."

This rule (365, 3) was more closely followed formerly than at present. Many exceptions to it can be found in modern English, and some in older English; as, With the events *which* actually influence our course through life. — *Hawthorne*. A felicity *which* should continue. — *Macaulay*. In the poetical quarter I found that there were poets *who* had no monuments and monuments *which* had no poets. — *Addison* (Westminster Abbey).

366. *Who* or *which* is preferred to *that* in non-restrictive clauses; as, And I, *who* woke each morrow. — *Halleck*. (Explanatory clause, but not restrictive.) "Read thy doom in the flowers, *which* fade and die."

367. Non-restrictive clauses should be set off by *commas*.

RESTRICTIVE CLAUSES

I met the watchman who showed me the way.
 The man of whom you spoke, is here.
 The geologists to whom this is of interest, etc.
 And fools that came to scoff, remained to pray.

NON-RESTRICTIVE CLAUSES

I met the watchman, who showed me the way.
 John Smith, of whom you spoke, is here.
 The geologists, to whom this is of interest, etc.
 And fools, who came to scoff, remained to pray.

What is the difference between restrictive and non-restrictive clauses ?

368. *As* is a relative pronoun after *such*, *same*, or *many*, and generally after *as much*; as, "I love *such as* love me." (*Such as = those that.*) "He has the same habits *as* his father." "As many *as* came, were baptized." (*As many as = all that.*)

369. *But* may be called a relative pronoun when it is equivalent to the relative *that* and the adverb *not*; as —

There is no fireside, howsoe'er defended,
But has one vacant chair. — *Longfellow.*

Some authors say that a pronoun is understood; as, "But *it*," etc.

370. *Than* is sometimes called a *relative* in such sentences as, "He took more *than* belongs to him," etc.

Adjective Pronouns

371. An **adjective pronoun** is a word that is used as a pronoun, and may be used as an adjective.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS

All await the hour.
Another came.
Each strove for the mastery.
Many have fallen.
 Is *this* your book ?

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

All the world's a stage.
Another morning came.
 Improve *each* shining hour.
Many brave boys fell.
 Is *this* book yours ?

372. Among the common adjective pronouns are *each*, *either*, *neither*, *this* (*these*), *that* (*those*), *former*, *latter*, *all*,

another, any, both, few, many, more, most, much, none, one (ones), other (others), some, such, and several.

373. *Each* refers to any number of objects taken singly; as, “*Each* of the pupils had recited.”

374. *Either* and *neither* (*not either*) refer to one of two only; as, “*Either* will do.” (One of two.) “*Neither* will suit me.”

375. *That* and *those* refer to distant objects, the first mentioned, or the absent; *this* and *these* refer to objects near by, the last mentioned, or the present; as—

Farewell, my friends! farewell, my foes!

My peace with *these*, my love with *those*. — *Burns.*

(*These* = *my foes*; *those* = *my friends*.)

376. When *one* and *other* refer to two objects previously mentioned, *one* refers to the first object, and *other* to the second; as, “Virtue and vice are before you; the *one* leads to happiness, the *other* to misery.”

377. *Each other* should refer to two only; *one another* to more than two; as, “David and Jonathan loved *each other*.” “Those children love *one another*.”

378. Adjective pronouns may be classed as—

Demonstrative; as, *this (these), that (those), former, latter.*

Distributive; as, *each, every, either, neither.*

Indefinite; as, *some, all, any, few, none.*

EXERCISES

379. *Classify the nouns and pronouns in 238, 253, and 255.*

380. *Correct the following sentences, recasting them when necessary:*

1. The air that is composed of O and N surrounds the earth. 2. If the lad should leave his father, he would die. 3. The boys they were late. 4. Love thy neighbor as yourself. 5. She said that when she saw her sister she cried. 6. Both city and country life have their attractions; this brings society, and that solitude. 7. Either of the five will suit me. 8. Dryden's page is a natural field, Pope's is a velvet lawn; the one follows rules, the other nature. 9. Rooms for gentlemen that are heated with steam. 10. Solomon, the son of David, who built the temple at Jerusalem, was a wise and powerful king.

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

381. The **properties** of nouns and pronouns are *gender, person, number, and case.*

The gender, person, and number of many pronouns can be told only by referring to their antecedents. (339.)

Gender

382. *Read the following:*

1. Jason met his cousin on the lawn. 2. Laura was with her parents. 3. Lion, lioness, trees, king, queen, boys, girls, hero, heroine.

Does the word "Jason" represent a male, or a female? "His"? "Cousin"? "Lawn"? "Parents"? "Lioness"? "Tree"? "King"? "Girl"? Which of the foregoing words represent males? Which represent females? Which may be used without change of form to represent either a male or a female? Which represents

neither a male nor a female? Which words change their form to represent females?

383. **Gender** is a variation in the use and form of a noun or a pronoun to distinguish objects in regard to sex.

Or, *Gender* is that *property* of a noun or a pronoun which distinguishes objects in regard to sex. And the same change may be made in the definition of each property. (310.)

384. Gender is applied to all nouns and pronouns, although some undergo no variation in their use to distinguish objects in regard to sex. For example: *Bachelor* is always used to represent a male; *daughter*, a female; *stone*, an object without sex. Strictly speaking, words that undergo no variation in use to distinguish objects in regard to sex *do not have grammatical gender*. Many nouns and pronouns vary in both use and form; as, *tiger*, *tigress*, *he*, *she*. Many pronouns vary in use only; as, "The man *who* came" (mas.). "The woman *who* came" (fem.).

Do not confound *sex* and *gender*. Sex belongs to some objects; gender belongs to words used to represent objects.

385. There are four genders: the *masculine*, the *feminine*, the *common*, and the *neuter*.

386. A noun or a pronoun used to represent a male is in the **masculine gender**. Illustrate.

387. A noun or a pronoun used to represent a female is in the **feminine gender**. Illustrate.

388. A noun or a pronoun that may be used without changing its form to represent either a male or a female, is in the **common gender**. Illustrate.

389. A noun or a pronoun used to represent neither a male nor a female, is in the **neuter gender**. Illustrate.

390. Frequently, nouns and pronouns in the masculine gender are used to represent a class consisting of both

males and females; as, "*Man* is mortal." (Every man and every woman.) "*Lions* are found in Africa." Sometimes, nouns and pronouns in the feminine gender are used for the same purpose; as, "*Geese* are graceful swimmers."

Actor, author, poet, teacher, doctor, lawyer, chairman, etc., are frequently used to represent women, as well as men.

391. A **collective noun** is in the neuter gender when the collection that it names is regarded as a single thing. When it refers to the individuals composing the collection, its gender is determined by the sex of the individuals; as, "The *army* spread destruction in its march." "The *congregations* are large." (Each congregation is regarded as a single thing; neuter gender.) "The *congregation* may bring their hymn books." (The members of the congregation; common gender.)

392. The sex of children and small animals is sometimes disregarded; and the words representing them are in the *neuter gender*; as—

A simple *child* that lightly draws *its* breath. — *Wordsworth.*

And is the *swallow* gone?

Who beheld *it*? — *William Howitt.*

393. Nouns and pronouns that represent either males or females without changing their form, are in the *common gender*, if the sex is not indicated by some other word; as, "*I* saw *you*." (Common gender.) "*I*, your brother, saw *you*, Mary." (*I*, mas.; *you*, fem.) "The *child* was hurt" (com.). "The *child* hurt his hand" (mas.). "The *child* hurt her hand" (fem.). "The *child* hurt its hand" (neut.). "The *descendants* of Pocahontas" (com.). "The male *descendants*" (mas.).

394. Objects without life are sometimes regarded as *persons*, and are then said to be **personified**. (295, 5.) The names of personified objects noted for size, strength, sublimity, or superiority are in the **masculine gender**. Those noted for grace, beauty, gentleness, or productiveness are in the **feminine gender**; as —

The *moon* looks down on old *Cronest*;
She mellows the shades on *his* shaggy breast. — *Drake*.

395. Abstract ideas are frequently personified, and the nouns naming them usually become proper nouns in the masculine or feminine gender; as, Last came *Joy's* ecstatic trial. — *Collins*.

In German, Latin, Greek, and many other languages, the gender of nouns is determined by the form of the noun instead of the meaning, as in English. For example, in German, *der Garten* (the garden) is masculine, *die Blume* (the flower) is feminine, and *das Gebet* (the prayer) is neuter. In Latin, *mons* (mountain) is masculine, *lux* (light) is feminine, etc. So in French, as *papier* (paper), masculine, *plume* (pen), feminine. A trace of this is seen in English in such examples as, "The *ship* spread *her* sails to the breeze." "*Engine 999* shook *her* sides as *she* brought *her* train into the station on schedule time."

HOW SEX IS DISTINGUISHED

396. The two sexes are distinguished in three ways:

1. By using *different words*; as, *boy, girl; bachelor, maid; hart, roe; king, queen; gentleman, lady; son, daughter*. (384.)

2. By using *different endings*; as, *actor, actress; duke, duchess; tiger, tigress; tutor, tutoress; shepherd, shepherdess*.

3. By using *distinguishing words*; as, *manservant,*

maidservant or *woman servant*; *he goat, she goat*; male *descendants*, female *descendants*; *Mr. Lyon, Mrs. Lyon* or *Miss Lyon*. (11.)

The suffix *ess* (French *esse*) is frequently used. The masculine noun sometimes ends in *er* or *or*. The suffix *ster* is no longer a feminine ending in *huckster, gamester*, etc. *Spinster* is feminine, but is no longer the feminine of *spinner*.

EXERCISES

397. *Study the following words, so that when one of a pair is given you can recall the other. The first word of each pair is masculine.*

Bridegroom, bride; beau, belle; brother, sister; colt, filly; drake, duck; earl, countess; father, mother; gander, goose; gentleman, lady; he, she; horse, mare; husband, wife; king, queen; lad, lass; lord, lady; male, female; man, woman; master, mistress or miss; Mr., Mrs.; monk or friar, nun; nephew, niece; papa, mamma; sir, madam; slovern, slattern; steer, heifer; uncle, aunt; wizard, witch; youth, maiden or damsel. (p. 318.)

398. *Write the feminine of the following masculine nouns by adding "ess":*

Author, baron, count, dauphin, deacon, giant, god (315, 5), heir, host, Jew, lion, mayor, patron, peer, poet, priest, prophet, shepherd, tailor, traitor.

399. *Write the feminine of the following masculine nouns by dropping the masculine ending "er" or "or," and adding the feminine "ess":*

Adventurer, governor, murderer, sorcerer.

400. *Drop the last vowel and add "ess":*

Actor, ambassador, benefactor, caterer, conductor, director, editor, founder, hunter, instructor, monitor, negro, prince, proprietor, songster, tiger, traitor.

401. *Drop the last vowel and add "ix":*

Administrator, executor, testator, prosecutor.

402. *Study the following groups:*

Abbot, abbess; czar, czarina; hero, heroine; marquis, marchioness; sultan, sultana; archduke, archduchess; gentleman, gentlewoman; grandfather, grandmother; landlord, landlady; schoolmaster, schoolmistress; stepson, stepdaughter; manservant, maidservant or woman servant; Mr. Schofield, Mrs. Schofield or Miss Schofield; Augustus, Augusta; Charles, Caroline; Cornelius, Cornelia; Francis, Frances; Jesse, Jessie; Joseph, Josephine; Louis, Louisa.

403. *In what gender are the nouns and pronouns in the following list?*

General Grant, church, milkmaid, I, game, they, corps, hers, baroness, poem, who, mouse, Wednesday, wizard, shepherd, Miss Roth, class, fleet, coal, cotton, lawyer, which, Rome, tobacco, regiment.

Person

404. *Read the following:*

1. I saw you with him, James. 2. Mary, will you bring me the book? 3. We, it, London, Carlyle, they, thou.

In the first sentence, which word represents the speaker? Which words represent the person spoken to? Which the

person spoken of? In the second sentence, which does the word "Mary" represent, the speaker, or the person spoken to? "You"? "Me"? Which word represents the thing spoken of? What does "we" represent? "It"? "London"? "Carlyle"? "They"? "Thou"?

405. The **person** of a noun or a pronoun is a variation in its use and form to represent the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

406. There are three persons: the *first*, the *second*, and the *third*.

407. The personal pronoun has a distinct form for each person; as, *I, you, he*. All other pronouns, and all nouns, vary in use only.

408. A pronoun used to represent the speaker is in the **first person**. Illustrate.

409. A noun or a pronoun used to represent the person spoken to is in the **second person**. Illustrate.

410. A noun or a pronoun used to represent the person or the thing spoken of is in the **third person**. Illustrate.

Nouns are not used in the first person. In the sentence, "I Paul beseech you," the noun *Paul* does not directly represent the speaker; it shows definitely who is meant by the pronoun *I*, and it is in the third person. So, also, the nouns *teacher* and *pupils* are in the third person in "I am the teacher; you are the pupils."

EXERCISE

411. *In what person are the following nouns and pronouns?*

1. It, we, Mississippi, darkness, Chaucer. 2. "Miss Smith, may I accompany you to the park?" 3. "Ye

crag and peaks! I'm with you once again." 4. Who is this that darkeneth counsel by words without knowledge? — *Job xxxviii. 2.*

Number

412. *Read the following:*

1. Blessings on thee, barefoot boy! 2. The mountains are covered with snow. 3. Man, men, Dr. Brown, ladies.

How many do I mean when I say "thee"? "Boy"? Does the word "mountains" represent more than one object? "Man"? "Men"? "Dr. Brown"? "Ladies"? Does "boy" change its form to represent more than one? Does "lady"?

413. The **number** of a noun or a pronoun is a variation in its use and form to represent one object or more than one.

414. Most nouns and pronouns vary in both use and form in showing whether one object is meant, or more than one; as, *boy, boys; he, they; this, these.* A few nouns and pronouns vary in use only; as, one *sheep*, ten *sheep*; the man *who* came, the men *who* came. (528-534.)

415. There are two numbers: the **singular** and the **plural**.

416. A noun or a pronoun used to represent but one object is in the **singular number**. Illustrate.

417. A noun or a pronoun used to represent more objects than one is in the **plural number**. Illustrate.

418. A noun or a pronoun having the same form for both numbers is said to be in the *singular* number, unless some other word shows that it represents more than one; as, "I saw a *sheep*" (sing.). "I saw

the *sheep*" (sing.). "The *sheep* is in the field" (sing.). "The *sheep* are in the field" (plu.). "Whom did you see?" (sing.). "Whom did you see? — Mr. Smith" (sing.). "Whom did you see? — The ladies" (plu.).

NUMBER OF NOUNS

Rules for expressing Plural Number

GENERAL RULES

419. Nouns are generally made *plural* —

1. By adding *s* to the singular, when the sound of *s* will unite with the last sound of the noun; as, *hill, hills; valley, valleys; mountain, mountains.*

2. By adding *es* to the singular, when the sound of *s* will not unite with the last sound of the noun; as, *box, boxes; summons, summonses; bridge, bridges.*

SPECIAL RULES

(Exceptions to the first general rule)

420. The following classes of nouns add *es* :

1. Nouns ending with *y* preceded by a consonant; as, *fly, flies.* (315, 3.)

2. Most nouns ending with *i, o, or u*, preceded by a consonant; as, *hero, heroes; cargo, cargoes.*

EXCEPTIONS. — A few nouns ending with *o*, preceded by a consonant, follow the general rule and add *s*. Among these are: *canto, duodecimo, halo, junto, lasso, memento, octavo, proviso, piano, solo, tyro.*

3. Most nouns ending with *f* or *fe*; as, *elf, elves; knife, knives; wharf, wharves* (also *wharfs*).

F is changed to *v*. (315, 1.)

EXCEPTIONS. — A few nouns ending with *f* or *fe*, follow the general rule and add *s*. Among these are: *belief, brief, chief, dwarf, fief, fife, grief, gulf, handkerchief, hoof, proof, reef, relief, reproof, roof, safe, scarf, strife, waif.*

RULE FOR LETTERS, ETC.

421. *Letters, figures, and signs* are made plural by adding 's to the singular ; as, *a, a's ; 6, 6's ; +, +'s.*

EXERCISES

422. *Write the plural of the following nouns (419):*

Alley, attorney, bamboo, bay, brush, chimney, church, cuckoo, cuff, cupful, dish, essay, flagstaff, head, horse, kiss, miss, money, monument, muff, oak, portfolio, prize, tax, topaz.

423. *Write the plural of the following nouns (420):*

Ally, army, city, daisy, fairy, fancy, lady, lily, mystery, soliloquy.¹ Alkali, buffalo, echo, embargo, grotto, mosquito, motto, negro, potato, tornado, volcano. Beef, half, leaf, life, thief, wolf.

1. After *q, z* is a consonant.

424. *Write the plural of the nouns in 420.*

425. *Write the plural of—*

Cameo, cargo, clock, couch, elf, eye, fife, five, gnu, judge, if, i, mouth, rein, rose, staff, success, turkey, veto, zero, x, —, 5, §, ©.

Irregular Plurals

426. The following nouns are said to form their plurals irregularly :

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Man,	men	Ox,	oxen	Tooth,	teeth
Woman,	women	Foot,	feet	Louse,	lice
Child,	children	Goose,	geese	Mouse,	mice

Kine (singular, *cow*) is obsolete except in poetry. (Scottish, *cows*, *ky*, plural.)

Seven of these words really form their plural regularly, *i.e.* by changing the vowel sound of the singular noun. Which are they?

The noun *ox* forms its plural regularly by adding *en*. This method of forming the plural was in frequent use in old English.

427. Some nouns have two plurals, with different meanings. Among these are —

Brother, *brothers* (of the same family), *brethren* (of the same society).

Die, *dies* (stamps for coining), *dice* (small cubes for gaming).

Genius, *geniuses* (men of genius), *genii* (spirits).

Index, *indexes* (tables of contents), *indices* (algebraic signs).

Penny, *pennies* (coins), *pence* (amount of value).

Shot, *shot* (number of balls), *shots* (number of times fired).

428. Some nouns have the same form for both numbers.

Among these are —

Bellows	Odds	Grouse	Species (kind)
Alms	Deer	Vermin	Head (cattle)
Corps	Sheep	Heathen	Sail (vessels)
Means	Swine	Series	United States, etc.

Formerly *horse* was both singular and plural.

429. Some nouns frequently have the same form for both numbers. Among these are —

Brace	Dozen	Perch	Herring
Pair	Score	Mackerel	Fish
Yoke	Trout	Salmon	Etc.

But the plural of most of these nouns is also regularly formed, especially when they imply number rather than quantity or kind; as, *By scores* and *dozens*. — *Shakspeare*.

Plurals of Proper and Compound Nouns

430. Proper nouns are made plural by adding *s* to the singular, or *es* when *s* will not unite in sound; as, the four *Napoleons*; the two *Marys*; the *Foxes*.

The plural of *India* is *Indies*.

431. Complex proper nouns are made plural by adding *s* or *es* to the last word only; as, the *Oliver Cromwells*; the *John Paul Joneses*; the three *General Lees*; the two *Professor Brookses*.

432. When the title *Mr.* or *Dr.* forms part of a complex proper noun, the noun is made plural by making the title plural; as, Mr. Baker, *Messrs. Baker*; Dr. Atlee, *Drs. Atlee*. When the title is *Mrs.*, or when a numeral precedes the title, the noun is made plural by making the last word plural; as, The *Mrs. Barlows*.—*Irving*. The two *Mr. Wellers*.—*Dickens*. “The five *Miss Welshes*.” When the title is *Miss*, the noun is made plural by making either the last word or the title plural; as, The *Miss Bertrams*.—*Scott*. The *Misses Smith*.—*Bryant*. “The *Miss Bertrams*” is generally to be preferred.

433. Compound nouns are generally made plural by pluralizing the part that names the object.

EXAMPLES. — Mouse-ear, *mouse-ears*; wagonload, *wagonloads*; oxbow, *oxbows*; brother-in-law, *brothers-in-law*; postmaster-general, *postmasters-general*; major general, *major generals*; court-martial, *courts-martial*; aid-de-camp, *aids-de-camp*. So also, schoolhouse, *schoolhouses*; horseman, *horsemen*; gentleman, *gentlemen*; penman, *penmen*; blackboard, *blackboards*; etc. (*German, Mussulman, Ottoman, talisman*, etc., add *s*.)

434. Compound nouns derived from foreign languages are generally made plural by pluralizing the last part of the word; as, pianoforte, *pianofortes*; camera obscura, *camera obscuras*; tête-à-tête, *tête-à-têtes*.

435. A few compound nouns have both parts made plural; as, manservant, *menservants*; ignis fatuus *ignes*

fatui; Knight Templar, *Knights Templars* (frequently *Knights Templar*).

EXERCISE

436. Write the singular and the plural of the following nouns:

Hanger-on, Jack-o'-lantern, woman servant, son-in-law, attorney-general, cartload, lieutenant general, commander in chief, portemonnaie, ipse dixit, Carolina, Jay Gould, Mr. Harper, Miss Wilson, Mrs. Brooks, (the three) Miss Jones, Dr. McJunkin, (the two) Dr. McJunkin, Professor Sensenig, Captain John Smith.

Nouns used in One Number

437. The following nouns are generally used in the singular number only:

1. The names of materials, or material nouns; as, *gold*, *air*, *sugar*, *wine*, *flour*, *milk*, *ground* (meaning earth).

The plural of these nouns is frequently used when different kinds are meant; as, "The *teas* of China;" *wines*, *sugars*, etc. So also, "The *waters* are roaring."

2. The names of arts, sciences, and diseases; as, *arithmetic*, *mathematics*, *logic*, *ethics*, *sculpture*, *painting*, *fever*.

But when different kinds are meant, we may say, "*Fevers* prevail on the island," etc.

3. Abstract nouns; as, *pride*, *height*, *baseness*, *beauty*.

When not used as abstract nouns, these words are frequently found in the plural number; as, *lodgings*, *heights*, *beauties*, *forces*.

4. *News* and *politics*.

News in old English was generally plural. *Politics* is sometimes plural.

438. Some nouns are used in the plural number only. They name objects that are considered collectively. Among these nouns are —

Aborigines	Breeches	Measles	Statistics
Alms	Cattle	Nuptials	Tongs
Amends	Clothes	Oats	Thanks
Annals	Credentials	Obsequies	Tidings
Antipodes	Dregs	Paraphernalia	Trousers
Archives	Eaves	Pincers	Vespers (services)
Ashes	Embers	Premises (bldgs.)	Victuals
Assets	Goods (mdse.)	Riches	Wages
Belles-lettres	Headquarters	Remains	
Billiards	Hose	Scissors	
Bitters	Hysterics	Snuffers	

Nuptial, thank, and wage are found in old English. *Wage* is occasionally used now. *Premise*, a proposition, is used in both numbers. *Alms, eaves, and riches* (French *richesse*) were formerly singular, but are regarded as plural. *Tidings* was formerly used also in the singular; as, That tidings came. — *Shak.* *Foot and horse*, when referring to soldiers, are plural.

Collective and Foreign Nouns

439. A collective noun may be used —

1. In the singular number, to represent the collection as a single thing; as, “The *family* is large.” “The *congregation* is small.”

2. In the plural number, to represent several collections; as, “The *families* are large.” “The *congregations* are small.” When thus used, it is made plural in the ordinary way.

3. In the plural number, to refer to the individuals composing the collection; as, “The *family* are in want.” (The members of the family.) “The *congregation* will remain

in their seats." When thus used, it has the same form as in the singular number. (39I.)

440. Many **foreign nouns** in common use have two plural forms, an English and a foreign one. The following are among those most frequently used :

<i>Singular</i>	<i>English Plural</i>	<i>Foreign Plural</i>
Bandit	bandits	banditti
Beau	beaus	beaux
Cherub	cherubs	cherubim
Focus	focuses	foci
Formula	formulas	formulæ
Gymnasium	gymnasiums	gymnasia
Memorandum	memorandums	memoranda
Nucleus	nucleuses	nuclei
Radius	radiuses	radii
Seraph	seraphs	seraphim
Spectrum	spectrums	spectra
Stamen	stamens	stamina

When a foreign word passes into common use, the tendency is to adopt the English plural. — *Bain*.

441. Many **foreign nouns** retain their original plural forms. The following are among those most frequently used :

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Alumna (fem.)	alumnæ	Emphasis	emphases
Alumnus (mas.)	alumni	Erratum	errata
Amanuensis	amanuenses	Genus	genera
Analysis	analyses	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Axis	axes	Madame	Mesdames
Basis	bases	Minutia	minutiæ
Crisis	crises	Monsieur	Messieurs
Datum	data	Nebula	nebulæ
Desideratum	desiderata	Oasis	oases
Diæresis	diæreses	Parenthesis	parentheses
Ellipsis	ellipses	Phenomenon	phenomena

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Proboscis	proboscides	Terminus	termini
Stratum	strata	Thesis	theses
Synthesis	syntheses	Vertebra	vertebræ

Observe that the ending *a* is generally changed to *æ*, *us* to *i*, *um* and *on* to *a*, *is* to *es* or *ides*, etc.

EXERCISES

442. Write the singular and the two plurals of the following nouns:

Tribe, class, committee, people, beau, formula, gymnasium, medium, memorandum, stamen.

443. Write the plural of the following nouns:

Alumnus, analysis, axis, datum, ellipsis, erratum, genus, hypothesis, minutia, monsieur, nebula, proboscis, stimulus, thesis, vertebra.

444. Correct the following errors:

1. Dot your *is* and cross your *ts*. 2. The Misses Bishops. 3. The Jones's. 4. Dr. Browns. 5. Mice-traps. 6. Father-in-laws. 7. Sisters-in-laws. 8. The deers are in that woods. 9. My Masonic brothers. 10. One strata.

NUMBER OF PRONOUNS

445. Personal pronouns, and the adjective pronouns *this* and *that*, have irregular plural forms; as, I, *we*; thou, *ye*; you, *you*; he, *they*; she, *they*; it, *they*; this, *these*; that, *those*.

446. *We*, *our*, and *us* are sometimes used in editorials, speeches, and proclamations to represent but one; as, "We are convinced that the war will soon end." "We, Victoria, Queen of England," etc. *You*, *your*, and *yours*

are singular as well as plural; as, "Boys, *you* may go" (pl.). "James, *you* may go" (sing.). "*You* may go" (pl.).

447. Interrogative and conjunctive pronouns have the same form in both numbers; as, "*Who* is he?" "*Who* are they?" "*What* is a gnu?" "*What* are moccasins?"

448. The adjective pronouns *one* and *other* are made plural regularly; as, one, *ones*; other, *others*. *Each*, *either*, *neither*, and *another* are used in the singular number only. *Both*, *few*, *many*, and *several* are used in the plural number only. *All*, *any*, *none*, *former*, *latter*, *first*, *last*, *same*, *some*, etc., have the same form for both numbers.

EXERCISE

449. *In what number are the following pronouns?*

I, thou, they, you, she, who, what, that (conjunctive), that (adjective), these, none, each, few, both, much, such, many, all, yourself, several.

Case

450. *Read the following sentences:*

1. The eagle caught a lamb. 2. I shot the eagle.
3. The eagle's nest is on the crag. 4. He came yesterday. 5. Did you see his books, Mary? 6. They rewarded him. 7. She bought your pony for me.

What caught a lamb? What did I shoot? Whose nest is on the crag? What is the subject of "caught"? In the third sentence, what word denotes possession? In how many ways is the noun "eagle" used in these three sentences? Has it the same form in all the sentences? In how many ways is the pronoun "he" used in the next

three sentences? In the seventh sentence, what is the subject of the verb "bought"? The direct object? What word denotes possession? What is the object of "for"?

451. **Case** is a variation in the use and form of a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to other words.

Or, *case* is a variation in the use and form of a noun or a pronoun to show the relation of an object to an action, to another object, or to some condition or circumstance.

The term *case* is also applied to nouns and pronouns that are used independently. (187.) When thus applied, it refers merely to the *form* of the word.

452. There are three cases: the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*.

453. Most personal, interrogative, and conjunctive pronouns vary in both use and form for the possessive and the objective case; as, *he, his, him; who, whose, whom*.

454. All nouns and pronouns vary in both use and form in denoting possession; as, "*John's hat.*" "*Whose skates?*" "*Another's book.*" "*My ring.*"

455. All nouns and many pronouns have the same form for the nominative and the objective case; as, "*John struck James;*" "*James struck John.*" "*This is yours.*" "He had *this.*"

NOMINATIVE CASE.—RULES OF CONSTRUCTION

Subject of Finite Verb

456. Rule 1. A noun or a pronoun used as the subject of a finite verb is in the **nominative case**. (145.)

457. A verb that changes its form to agree with the person and number of its subject is said to be limited by

the person and number of its subject, and is called a *finite* verb. (592.) A verb that is not limited by the person and number of its subject is called a *non-finite* verb. (593.) Examine the verbs in the following sentences :

FINITE VERBS

She believes that I *am* brave.
 She believes that you *are* brave.
 When John *came*, we left.

NON-FINITE VERBS

She believes me *to be* brave.
 She believes you *to be* brave.
 John *having come*, we left.

For Summary of Rules of Construction, see *Appendix*, p. 345.

POSITION OF SUBJECT

458. In declarative sentences, the **subject** is generally placed before the verb.

459. In interrogative sentences, the **subject** follows the verb or the first part of the verb, unless an interrogative word is the subject or a modifier of the subject ; as, "Who was *Blennerhasset*?" "Where were *you*?" "What has *he* done?" "*Who* came with you?" "*Which* book was taken?"

From these examples it is seen that *interrogative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs* are placed at the beginning of sentences.

460. In imperative sentences, the **subject** follows the verb ; as, "Go (*thou*) in peace." "Hallowed be Thy *name*."

461. When the **subject** of a verb in an abridged clause is used with it as the subject of a verb in a sentence, the verb of the clause sometimes follows the verb of the sentence, and the subject precedes it ; as, "*It* was found *to be* correct." "Twenty thousand *men* were said *to have been* engaged." "The *Cretans* were believed *to be* liars."

462. The subject is *transposed*—

1. When a supposition is expressed without using a conjunction ; as, "Were *he* in your place, he would go."

2. When a wish is expressed by the use of the auxiliary *may*; as, "May *you* prosper."

3. When the adverb *there* is used to change the relative position of the subject and the verb; as, "*There* was no *one* here." (206.)

4. Sometimes, when the verb is preceded by *here, there, thence, thus, yet, herein, therein, wherein*, etc.; as, "Thus *spake he*." "Therein *have ye done wrong*."

5. Sometimes, to add strength or beauty to a sentence; as, "Great *is Diana*." "From peak to peak *leaps* the live *thunder*."

463. Polite usage requires that the person addressed should be mentioned first and the speaker last.

EXAMPLE. — "You, Thomas, and I are invited;" not, "I, you, and Thomas," or "Thomas, you, and I," or "You, I, and Thomas."

Nouns and Pronouns used Independently

464. Rule 2. A noun or a pronoun used independently is in the **nominative case**. (187.)

465. Special Rule 1. A pronoun used independently is sometimes in the **objective case**; as, "Ah, *me!*"

466. A noun or pronoun may be used *independently* —

1. By direct address; as, "*Mary*, will you remain?" "On, *Stanley*, on."

2. By specification; as, "*Elements* of Grammar and Composition." "Webster's *Dictionary*."

3. By exclamation; as, "Alas, poor *Yorick!*"

4. By pleonasm; as, "*He* that hath ears to hear, let him hear."

Nouns and Pronouns used Absolutely

467. Rule 3. A noun or a pronoun used absolutely is in the **nominative case**.

Absolutely, in a loosened sense; so called because it is *set free* from its relation to a finite verb or a preposition, but remains connected with a non-finite verb or a verbal.

468. Special Rule 2. A noun or a pronoun used absolutely is sometimes in the **possessive case**. (474.)

469. A noun or a pronoun may be used *absolutely* —

1. As the subject of a non-finite verb, when it does not depend for its form upon any other word; as, "*Shame being lost*, all virtue is lost." "That depends upon *his remaining true*." See also 275 and 276, 2.

In "I thought him to be my friend," the pronoun *him* is the subject of the non-finite verb *to be*, but, as it depends for its form upon the verb *thought*, it is not used absolutely. See also 276 (except 276, 2).

2. As the complement of a verbal, without modifying any word; as, "*To be a soldier* requires courage." "The folly of *becoming a politician* is often seen." (164.)

In "To study *grammar* is pleasant," the noun *grammar* is the complement of the verbal *to study*, but it also modifies *to study*. It is therefore not used absolutely. (166.)

EXERCISES

470. *Point out the nouns and pronouns in the nominative case:*

1. Wisdom is better than rubies.
2. The war being over, commerce revived.
3. Poor old man! What became of him, Joshua?
4. To be a brave soldier is not easy.
5. The folly of becoming a politician is often seen.

471. *Correct the following errors :*

1. Me and her went yesterday. 2. He is older than me. 3. Us objecting, they would not go.

POSSESSIVE CASE.—RULES OF CONSTRUCTION

472. Rule 4. A noun or a pronoun used to modify another by denoting possession is in the **possessive case**. (150.)

473. The term *possession* includes origin, and intended as well as actual possession; as, "*Euclid's* Geometry." (Origin.) "*Ladies' hats* for sale." (Intended possession.) "*Their* books." (Actual possession.)

474. Special Rule 2. A noun or a pronoun used absolutely is sometimes in the **possessive case**; as, "*James's* being called a coward did not make him one." He made no secret of *my* having written the review. — *Irving*. "*Their* being Englishmen protected them."

The noun *James's* is used as the subject of the non-finite verb *being called*. It is said to be in the possessive case because it has the possessive form, but it does not denote possession. So also *my* and *their*. This use of the possessive form is restricted mainly to proper nouns and personal pronouns. They are thus used to avoid ambiguity. (276, 2.)

James's, *my*, and *their* are generally (but incorrectly) said to modify the "participial nouns" that follow them by denoting possession.

Whitney says of *my*, in the sentence, "He knew of my having been left out": "This possessive has almost always the value of the subjective genitive, or one which points out the subject of the verbal action."

475. A possessive noun or pronoun is placed before the word that it modifies; as, The groves were *God's* first temples. — *Bryant*.

Possessive Case Forms of Nouns

476. An *apostrophe* and the *letter s* are added to the nominative form of singular nouns to express the possessive case; as, "*Burns's* poems." "The *boy's* books." "The *tigress's* cage."

To avoid the repetition of the *s* sound, we may say *conscience's sake*, *goodness's sake*, *Xerxes' army*, *the laws of Moses*, *the life of Jesus*; instead of *conscience's sake*, *Moses's laws*, etc.

477. An *apostrophe only* is added to plural nouns ending with *s*; and an *apostrophe* and the *letter s* are added to plural nouns not ending with *s*; as, "The *boys'* books." "*Ladies'* boots." "*Children's* toys." "*Mice's* tracks."

It will be seen that the nominative form precedes the apostrophe. Such forms as *deers'* and *sheeps'* (for the possessive plural of *deer* and *sheep*) are therefore incorrect.

The present method of forming the possessive case was introduced in the seventeenth century. Before that time the genitive singular usually took the ending *es*; as, The *birdes* sweete harmony. — *Spenser*.

478. The possessive sign is added to the last word of a compound noun; as, "My *son-in-law's* wife." "*William Cullen Bryant's* poems." "His two *sons-in-law's* estates." (433.)

479. The possessive sign is added only to the last of two or more nouns denoting common possession; as, "*Huxley and Youmans's* Physiology." If they do not denote common possession, it is added to each noun; as, *Brooks's* and *Hull's* Arithmetics (= Brooks's Arithmetics and Hull's Arithmetics).

480. The possessive sign is placed before the name of the object possessed; as, "The *heir apparent's* claim to the

estate." (*Heir's* is in the possessive case; *apparent* is an adjective.) "The *Secretary of War's* Report." "Somebody else's children." "Some one else's books."

Words modifying the name of the object possessed may be placed between it and the possessive noun; as, "The heir's *apparent* claim."

481. *Of* and an object should frequently be used instead of the possessive case in speaking of things without life, or of objects not personified; as, "The roof *of the house*." (Not the *house's* roof.) "The height *of the tree*." (Better than the *tree's* height.) But, the *king's* crown; the *horse's* tail; the *mountain's* brow. So also *the death of Lincoln*, instead of *Lincoln's death*, etc.

482. The possessive case form is sometimes used after the preposition *of* when it means *belonging to*; as, "That picture of the *queen's*."

Although *queen's* is illogically used for *queen*, and is therefore the object of *of*, it is perhaps best to supply some noun, as *possession* or *property*, and dispose of it as modifying the noun supplied by denoting possession. So also, "That head of *yours*." "That husband of *mine*," etc. (930, 16; 1011, 3, note.)

Possessive Case Forms of Pronouns

483. The forms for the possessive case of personal, interrogative, and conjunctive pronouns are *irregular*; as, He, *his*; I, *my*, *mine*; who, *whose*. (530-534.)

The apostrophe is not used in forming the possessive of these pronouns.

484. *Which* and *that* have no possessive forms. They are said to "borrow" the possessive of *who*; as, "The tree *whose* fruit," etc.

485. The pronouns *I, thou, you, she, we, and they* have each two possessive forms.

<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Possessive</i>	<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Possessive</i>
I	my, mine	She	her, hers
Thou	thy, thine	We	our, ours
You	your, yours	They	their, theirs

The first form is used when the name of the object possessed follows the possessive; the second when it does not do so; as, "*My* books are lost." "*Mine* are lost." "I have *your* books." "I have *yours*." "This is *her* book." "This book is *hers*." In construing *hers* in "This book is hers," supply *book*. In construing *yours* in "*Yours* is lost," "This is *yours*," supply *possession* or *property*. (1011, 3.)

Mine and *thine* are also sometimes used when the next word begins with a vowel sound; as, "All *mine* iniquities."

Pronouns in the second form are sometimes incorrectly called possessive pronouns in the nominative or objective case.

The possessive of *it* was formerly *his* (from *hit*). The modern form *its* was not originally used in the authorized version of the Bible. Shakspeare uses *his, it, and its* as the possessive of *it*.

EXERCISES

486. *In what case are the following nouns and pronouns?*

1. General Washington's army slowly retreated. 2. Mr. Jones, whose house was burned? 3. Grant's and Lee's forces were soon engaged. 4. Is this yours, or mine? 5. Dim are those heads of theirs. — *Carlyle*.

487. *Write the possessive singular and plural of—*

Anna, attorney, beau, body, boy, brother, brother-in-law, Commissioner of Customs,¹ daisy, Edward Brooks, empress, Frederick the Great,¹ goose, house, I, it, James, kiss, Knight Templar, major general, man, motto, mouse, negro, Oliver Cromwell, one, ox, postmaster-general, Queen

of England, seraph, she, swine, the Princess of Thule, the two Miss Carys, valley, waif, Washington.

1. Form the plural according to 433, and add the possessive sign to the last word according to 476 or 477.

488. *Correct the following errors :*

1. The mountains brow. 2. The soldiers's quarters.
3. Ladie's hats. 4. Mens' boots. 5. Geeses feathers.
6. Knight's Templar. 7. Hanger's-on; hangers'-on. 8. In William's and Mary's reign. 9. The fire destroyed both Stewart and Mabley's stores. 10. Somebody's else books.
11. Keats and Burns' poems. 12. Deers', sheeps'.
13. Charle's, James'. 14. Mrs. Hemans' poems. 15. At Smith's the grocer's. 16. Any ones else money.

489. *Can these sentences be made smoother or clearer?*

1. The well's depth is forty feet. 2. Have you seen my cousin's picture? 3. The man being a foreigner delayed the appointment. 4. My sister-in-law's brother's dog was killed. 5. The house of the friend of my wife was destroyed by the Ohio river's floods.

OBJECTIVE CASE

490. Nouns and pronouns that modify verbs, verbals, adjectives, and adverbs are called the **objects** of the words that they modify.

491. *Verbs* and *verbals* may have direct, indirect, and adverbial objects. *Adjectives* and *adverbs* may have indirect and adverbial objects. *Prepositions* have objects.

The case of the indirect object is the dative case of old English.

492. The following pronouns have distinct *objective forms*. Care must be taken to use them properly:

I, *me*; thou, *thee*; he, *him*; she, *her*; we, *us*; ye (or you), *you*; they, *them*; who, *whom*.

Rules of Construction

493. Rule 5. A noun or pronoun used as the direct object of a transitive verb or verbal is in the **objective case**. (166.)

When a verb or a verbal has a direct object, it is said to be *transitive* (598); as, "Columbus *discovered* America." "Gladstone *liked to fell* trees." A verb or a verbal that does not have a direct object is called *intransitive* (599); as, "The leaves *are falling*." "The rose *is* beautiful." A transitive verb or a preposition is said to "govern its object," because good usage requires the substantive following it to be in the objective case. *Transitive* means *passing over*; so called because in some instances the action passes from the person or thing represented by the subject to the person or thing represented by the object.

In "I thought him to be my friend," *him* is the direct object of *thought*, though not the entire object. (469, 1, note.)

494. A few verbs and verbals are followed by objects that are like them in meaning; as, "I *dreamed a dream*." "To *die* the *death* of the righteous, one *must live* a righteous *life*." These objects may be called *cognate objects*.

495. Special Rule 3. A noun or a pronoun used as the cognate object of a transitive verb or verbal is in the **objective case**.

Cognate objects can generally be disposed of as direct objects. In "He struck James a hard *blow*," *blow* should be parsed as a cognate object, as *James* is the direct object.

496. Rule 6. A noun or a pronoun used as the indirect object of a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or an adverb is in the **objective case**. (174, 179.)

497. Rule 7. A noun or a pronoun used as the adverbial object of a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or an adverb is in the **objective case**. (183.)

498. Rule 8. A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a preposition is in the **objective case**. (185.)

Position of Objects

499. Direct and indirect objects generally follow the words that they modify; as, "*Show me the man.*" "They fought *like* brave *men.*"

500. The direct object sometimes precedes the verb —

1. When it is emphatic; as, *Me* he restored to mine office, and *him* he hanged. — *Gen. xli. 13.*

2. In poetry; as, His daring foe securely *him* defied. — *Milton.*

3. In clauses; as, "We can easily describe *what* we thoroughly *understand.*" "The dust *that* we tread shall change."

501. Adverbial objects of verbs and verbals generally follow them; as, The Irish guns continued to roar all *night.* — *Macaulay.*

502. Adverbial objects of adjectives and adverbs generally precede them; as, "Three *miles* long." "An *hour* sooner."

503. The object of a preposition generally follows it; as, "The saddest *of* the *year.*"

504. The object of a preposition sometimes precedes it —

1. In clauses; as, “*What* he came *for*, I know not.”
“The books *that* he sent *for*, are here.”

2. In interrogative sentences; as, “*What* have you come *for*?”

3. In poetry; as, “The rattling *craggs among*.”

505. When three objects of different kinds modify the same verb, they are generally arranged as follows: first, **indirect object**; second, **direct object**; third, **adverbial object**; as, “He *brought me the book the next morning*.”

But we may also say, “The next *morning*, he brought me the book.”

EXERCISES

506. *In what case are the following nouns and pronouns?*

1. The heavens declare Thy glory, Lord. 2. Three times they tried to capture the fort. 3. They fought like brave men. 4. Lend me your ears. 5. A bird in flight is sustained and carried along by the action of the air against the motion of its wings.

507. *Correct the following errors:*

1. Let Anne and I go. 2. The bird flies like a robin flies. 3. None of we boys knew who it came from. 4. My son is to be married to I don't know who. 5. Who should I meet but he?

APPOSITION AND PREDICATION

508. A noun or a pronoun used to modify another by representing the same person or thing is —

1. In *predication* with the word that it modifies, when the two terms are joined by a verb or a verbal; as,

“*William is a blacksmith.*” “*Mr. Lyon, a senator, was elected governor.*” “*They elected Mr. Lyon governor.*” “*He desires to be a soldier.*” (159, 170.)

Words thus used are called *predicate nouns* or *pronouns*. A predicate noun or pronoun (or adjective) is a complement of a verb or verbal, and modifies its subject or direct object.

The subjective predicate noun or pronoun may be in the *objective* as well as the *nominative* case; as, “*She believed it to be him.*” The objective predicate noun or pronoun is always in the *objective* case.

2. In *apposition* with the word that it modifies, when the two terms are not joined by a verb or a verbal; as, “*William the blacksmith came yesterday.*” “*Mr. Lyon, a senator, was elected governor.*” (153.)

Appositive nouns and pronouns are generally used for *explanation*; they are, however, sometimes used for *emphasis*; as, “*William the farmer.*” (Explanation.) “*Thou, thou art the man.*” “*I myself will go.*” (Emphasis.)

Rules of Construction

509. Rule 9. A noun or a pronoun used in predication or apposition with another in the *nominative* or the *objective case*, agrees with it in case; as, “*Franklin the philosopher was a great statesman.*” “*I am he.*” “*Do you know William the blacksmith?*” “*I believe it to be him.*”

510. Rule 10. A noun or a pronoun used in predication or apposition with another in the *possessive case*, is in the **nominative case**; as, “*At Baer the bookseller’s.*” “*At Baer’s, the bookseller.*” “*I was not aware of his being a soldier.*” “*The fact of its being he,*” etc. “*Which is the painter Raphael’s greatest work?*” (480.)

511. Special Rule 4. A noun or a pronoun used in apposition with another in the *possessive case*, sometimes

agrees with it in case; as, "*His, my father's, honor was assailed.*" (Both words have the possessive form.)

512. Special Rule 5. A noun or a pronoun used in apposition with a word or a combination of words not used as a noun, is in the **nominative case**; as, "You are too *considerate*; *something* few persons are." "*You were silent*; a *confession* of guilt."

513. Explanatory nouns and pronouns do not depend on the words that they modify for any property but case, and hence frequently differ from them in gender, person, and number; as, "*I, your friend.*" "*I was eyes* to the blind."

514. Words representing parts are sometimes used in apposition with a word representing the whole; as, "The *city, cannon, stores, every thing* was in the possession of the enemy." "*Honor, wealth, happiness, all* were lost."

515. The adjective pronouns *each* and *one* are sometimes used in apposition with a preceding noun or pronoun; as, "*They each* carried a flag." "*They love each other.*" "*John and Mary love each other.*" "*Pupils* should be kind to *one* another."

Position of Appositives and Complements

516. An appositive noun or pronoun generally follows the word that it modifies; as, *Ye hills. — Thomson.* "*Spring, the sweet spring.*"

517. The appositive is sometimes transposed; as, *A prompt, decisive man, no breath our father wasted. — Whittier.* "*City, cannon, stores, every thing* was lost."

518. The complement of a verb or a verbal generally follows it; as, "God is *goodness*." "He tried to become a *scholar*." "Rome was *mighty*." "Brutus killed *Cæsar*."

519. The complement is sometimes transposed:

1. In interrogative sentences; as, "*What* is he?"
2. In clauses; as, "I know *what* he is."
3. In exclamatory sentences; as, "What *fools* they are!"
4. In poetry and rhetorical expressions; as, An exquisite *invention* this (is). — *Leigh Hunt*.

520. A predicate noun or pronoun (or adjective) generally follows the word that it modifies; as, "God is *goodness*." ("Why call ye me *good*?")

EXERCISES

521. *In what case are the following nouns and pronouns?*

1. The kaleidoscope is an optical toy.
2. I believed him to be my friend.
3. I believed him my friend.
4. She called her son Thomas, but not her son John.
5. She called her son Thomas, but the boys called him Tom.
6. The judge declared them to be dangerous persons.
7. They were declared to be dangerous persons.

522. *Correct the following errors:*

1. Is that him?
2. No, it is her.
3. She believed it to be him or I.
4. It is not me you are in love with.

Gender, Person, and Number of Pronouns

523. *Read the following sentences:*

1. The — that I saw, etc.
2. The man that I saw, etc.
3. The books that I saw, etc.
4. He came.
5. I know who came.

Can you tell the gender of "that," in the first sentence? The number? Why not? State the gender, person, and number of "that," in the second sentence. In the third. To what word must you refer to ascertain these properties? Do "man" and "that" agree in gender, person, and number? "Books" and "that"? How do you tell the gender, person, and number of "he"? "Who"?

PRONOUNS.—RULES OF CONSTRUCTION

524. Rule II. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in **gender, person, and number.**

525. Special Rule 6. A pronoun having two or more antecedents representing the same person or thing, is in the **singular number**; if they represent different persons or things, it is in the **plural number**. If the antecedents differ in person, it prefers the **first person** to the **second**, and the **second** to the **third**. If one is in the masculine or the feminine gender, and the other is in the neuter, the gender of the pronoun is **indefinite**; as, "Yonder lives a *statesman* and *soldier, who* has served his country in legislative halls and on the battle field." (*Who*, sing.) "*You and I, who* are," etc. (*Who*, first pers.; *you* and *I = we*.) "The *ship* and the *passengers that* were lost," etc. (*That*, gender indef.)

Although all pronouns "agree with their antecedents in gender, person, and number," it is only in parsing *relative pronouns* that it is necessary to refer to the antecedent to ascertain these properties. (356.)

EXERCISE

526. *In what gender, person, and number are the following pronouns?*

1. All that he has is yours. 2. Such as I have, give I thee. 3. Mental science endeavors to explain the manner in which the mind operates. 4. The Oxus rises in the plateau which separates Eastern and Western Turkestan. 5. He is pure himself whose thoughts are pure.

Declension

527. **Declension** is a variation in the form of a noun or a pronoun to express *gender, person, number, and case.*

528. DECLENSION OF NOUNS

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Possessive</i>	<i>Objective</i>	<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Possessive</i>	<i>Objective</i>	
Boy	boy's	boy	boys	boys'	boys	
Lady	lady's	lady	ladies	ladies'	ladies	
Man	man's	man	men	men's	men	
Brother	brother's	brother	brothers	brothers'	brothers	
			brethren	brethren's	brethren	
Goose	goose's	goose	geese	geese's	geese	
Deer	deer's	deer	deer	deer's	deer	
Pride	pride's	pride	—	—	—	
—	—	—	cattle	cattle's	cattle	
Jones	Jones's	Jones	Joneses	Joneses'	Joneses	

<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Possessive</i>	<i>Objective</i>
	SINGULAR	
Mr. Weller	Mr. Weller's	Mr. Weller
	PLURAL	
{ Messrs. Weller	Messrs. Weller's	Messrs. Weller
{ The two Mr. Wellers	The two Mr. Wellers'	The two Mr. Wellers
	SINGULAR	
Son-in-law	son-in-law's	son-in-law
	PLURAL	
Sons-in-law	sons-in-law's	sons-in-law

EXERCISE

529. Write the declension of the following nouns :

Clock, judge, volcano, foot, fish, sheep, beauty, Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Baker, court-martial, horseman, German, Knight Templar, hanger-on, family, bandit, alumnus, people, duchess, lieutenant governor.

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS

530. Personal Pronouns					
	SINGULAR			PLURAL	
<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Possessive</i>	<i>Objective</i>	<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Possessive</i>	<i>Objective</i>
<i>First Person</i>					
I	my or mine	me	we	our or ours	us
<i>Second Person — Solemn Style</i>					
Thou	thy or thine	thee	ye	your or yours	you
<i>Second Person — Common Style</i>					
You	you or yours	you	you	your or yours	you
<i>Third Person — Masculine Gender</i>					
He	his	him	they	their or theirs	them
<i>Third Person — Feminine Gender</i>					
She	her or hers	her	they	their or theirs	them
<i>Third Person — Neuter Gender</i>					
It	its	it	they	their or theirs	them

531. Compound Personal Pronouns					
	SINGULAR			PLURAL	
Myself	—	myself	ourselves	—	ourselves
Ourselves	—	ourselves	ourselves	—	ourselves
Thyself	—	thyself	yourselves	—	yourselves
Yourself	—	yourself	yourselves	—	yourselves
Himself	—	himself	themselves	—	themselves
Herself	—	herself	themselves	—	themselves
Itself	—	itself	themselves	—	themselves

532. Interrogative and Conjunctive Pronouns

SINGULAR AND PLURAL ALIKE •

<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Possessive</i>	<i>Objective</i>
Who	whose	whom
Which	(whose)	which
That	(whose)	that
What	—	what
As	—	as

533. Compound Conjunctive Pronouns

SINGULAR AND PLURAL ALIKE

Whoever	whosoever	whomever
Whosoever	whosoever	whomsoever
Whichever	—	whichever
Whichsoever	—	whichsoever
Whatever	—	whatever
Whatsoever	—	whatsoever

534. Adjective Pronouns

<i>Nominative</i>	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Possessive</i>	<i>Objective</i>	<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Possessive</i>	<i>Objective</i>	
One	one's	one	ones	ones'	ones	
Other	other's	other	others	others'	others	
Another	another's	another	—	—	—	
None	—	none	none	—	none	
This	—	this	these	—	these	
That	—	that	those	—	those	

EXERCISES**535.** Write the declension of the following pronouns:

I, thou, you, he, she, it, myself, ourself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, who, which, that, what, as, whoever, whichsoever, whatever, one, other, another, none, some, this, that, former, latter.

536. *Correct the following errors:*

Our's, her's, their's, yourn, yourn's, ourn, theirn, anothers', his', themselves, we uns, you uns, it's, theeself. Me and him came.

PRONOUNS AS SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIVES

RULES OF CONSTRUCTION

537. Rule 12. A **subordinate conjunctive** is used to introduce a clause and join it to the word that the clause modifies. (247.)

538. Special Rule 7. A **subordinate conjunctive** is sometimes used simply to introduce a clause. (252.)

EXERCISE

539. *Point out the conjunctive pronouns in the following sentences, and the words modified by the clauses introduced by them:*

1. All that I have is thine. 2. Can you explain the manner in which the mind operates? 3. Who bought the flowers? I have forgotten who. 4. Whom shall I send? I cannot tell whom. 5. If thou wouldst know what thou art, ascertain what thou canst do.

PARSING

540. Parsing is the process of stating the classes, properties, and construction of a part of speech

Parsing may be either *oral* or *written*.

Nouns and Pronouns

541.

FORMS OF PARSING. — WRITTEN PARSING

1. How fast the river runs between its banks and the rushes, Floy!

c n	pp	c n	c n	p n
n	n	n	n	f
3	3	3	3	2
s	s	p	p	s
runs	banks	bet	between	d a
n	p	o	o	n

Draw a line under the word to be parsed, and write the initial letters in a *vertical column*. Do not use any punctuation marks. When necessary, use a dotted line to separate the written parsing of two words, as *its* and *banks*.

ORAL PARSING

River is a common noun, in the neuter gender, third person, and singular number. It is used as the subject of *runs*, hence it is in the nominative case.

Its is a personal pronoun, etc. It is used to modify *banks* by denoting possession, hence it is in the possessive case.

Floy is a proper noun, etc. It is used independently by direct address, hence it is in the nominative case.

WRITTEN PARSING

2. To become a famous orator like Demosthenes the Athenian

c n	p n	c n
m	m	m
3	3	3
s	s	s
to become	like	Dem
n	o	o

is a task requiring genius and years of toil. 3. I desire him to go.

c n	c n	c n	c n	pp
n	n	n	n	m
3	3	3	3	3
s	s	p	s	s
To become	req	req	of	to go
n	o	o	o	desire
				o

ORAL PARSING

Orator is a common noun, etc. It is used absolutely as the complement of *to become*, hence it is in the nominative case.

Demosthenes. It is used as the indirect object of *like*, etc.

Athenian. It is used in apposition with *Demosthenes*, hence it is in the objective case.

Task. It is used in predication with *to become*, hence it is in the nominative case.

Him. It is the subject of *to go*, and with it is used as the direct object of *desire*, hence it is in the objective case.

WRITTEN PARSING

4. His being an Englishman gave him his freedom an hour later.

pp	cn	pp	acn	cn
m	m	m	n	n
3	3	3	3	3
s	s	s	s	s
being	his	gave	gave	later
p	n	o	o	o

ORAL PARSING

His. It is used absolutely as the subject of *being*, and is in the possessive case.

Englishman. It is used in predication with *his*, hence it is in the nominative case.

Him. It is used as the indirect object of *gave*, etc.

Freedom. It is used as the direct object of *gave*, etc.

Hour. It is used as the adverbial object of *later*, etc.

WRITTEN PARSING

5. The meek are said to inherit the earth. 6. Ours is lost.

adj cn	pp
c	c
3	i
p	p
to inherit	p
are said	
n	

ORAL PARSING

Meek is an adjective used as a common noun, etc. It is the subject of *to inherit*, and with it is used as the subject of *are said*, hence it is in the nominative case.

Ours. It is used to modify a noun omitted by denoting possession, hence it is in the possessive case.

EXERCISES

542. Parse the substantives in 470, 486, 506, and 521.

543. Give the rules of construction for the nouns and pronouns in 173, 177, 182, and 184.

Conjunctive Pronouns

544.

FORMS OF PARSING. — WRITTEN PARSING

1. *God* helps *them* *that* help *themselves*. — *Franklin*.

p n	pp	rp	c p p	p n
m	c	them	c	m
3	3	c	3	3
s	p	3	p	s
helps	helps	p	help	spec
n	o	help	o	n
		n		
		in cl		
		them		

ORAL PARSING

That is a relative pronoun; its antecedent is *them*, hence it is in the common gender, third person, and plural number. It is used as the subject of *help*, hence it is in the nominative case. It is also used to introduce the clause *that help themselves*, and join it to *them*.

Themselves is a compound personal pronoun, in the common gender, etc.

Franklin. It is used independently by specification, hence it is in the nominative case.

WRITTEN PARSING

2. Whoever succeeds will earn what they offer.

c c p	c p
c	n
3	3
s	s
succeeds	offer
n	o
in cl	in cl
	w e

ORAL PARSING

Whoever is a compound conjunctive pronoun, in the common gender, third person, and singular number. It is used as the subject of *succeeds*, hence it is in the nominative case. It is also used to introduce the clause *whoever succeeds*.

What is a conjunctive pronoun, etc. It is also used to introduce the clause *what they offer*, and join it to *will earn*.

EXERCISES

545. Parse the nouns and pronouns in 539, 253, and 257.

546. Give the rules of construction for the nouns and pronouns in 275 and 276.

547. Change the transposed words to their natural position, and explain the effect of the change :

1. Him'well I knew. 2. Instantly follows the rapid thunder!¹ 3. Down swept all his power. 4. Six times his gossamery thread the wary spider threw. 5. What a world of merriment their melody foretells!

1. When a word is transposed, the words modifying it accompany it.

548. Transpose the italicized words, punctuate the sentences, and explain the effect of the transposition :

1. They set *him* at defiance 2. *He* has gone 3. There is none to dispute my *right* 4. How sad is the *news* 5. *They* are brave *boys*

LANGUAGE TABLES

549. Read the following tables aloud every day, until you become accustomed to using and hearing the correct forms :

1.	2.	4.
It is I ;	Is it I ?	It was I ; etc.
It is you ;	etc.	5.
It is he ;	3.	It was not I ; etc.
It is we ;	Was it I ?	6.
It is they.	etc.	That was I ; etc.
7.	8.	
If I were you ;	You are older than I ;	
If you were he ;	You are older than he ; etc.	
If you were she ;	9.	
If he were they ; etc.	Is he younger than I ?	

Other wrong forms may be corrected in the same way.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

550. Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns and pronouns in them :

1. Gibraltar was taken by the Spaniards in 1704. 2. We should love one¹ another. 3. The trustees appointed my friend, Mr. Jones, teacher. 4. He that hath knowledge spareth his words. — *Prov. xvii. 27.* 5. The moon has twenty-eight mountains higher than Mont Blanc. 6. "They promised me one slice to-day," said he ; "I can give you that." — *Ruskin.* 7. Forgive us our debts as² we forgive our debtors. 8. We lose what is certain while we are seeking what is uncertain. — *Riley.* 9. Twenty thou-

sand men are said to have been engaged. 10. Water boils at a lower temperature in a metallic vessel than in one of glass.

11. Tell Envy, when she would annoy,
That thousands want what you enjoy. — *Gay*.

12. I was eyes to the blind, and feet was I to the lame. — *Job xxix. 15.* 13. She was named Helen. 14. We desire her to be named Ruth. 15. Do you approve of his becoming a sailor? 16. Whatever is popular deserves attention. — *Mackintosh.* 17. I bought him the toy this morning, at Smith⁸ the grocer's.⁴ 18. Blessed are the pure in heart. 19. Hers⁶ was found. 20. I am the Lord's,⁵ and he is mine. — *Doddridge.* 21. This toil of ours⁶ should be a work of thine. — *Shak.* 22. The truly good⁷ are happy. 23. Order is a lovely nymph, the child of Beauty and Wisdom; her attendants are Comfort, Neatness, and Activity; her abode is the valley of happiness. — *Johnson.* 24. And whoso⁸ receiveth one such little child in my name, receiveth me. — *Matt. xviii. 5.*

25. Sorrow breaks seasons and reposing hours,
Makes⁹ the night morning, and the noontide night. — *Shak.*

1. 515. 2. *Adv., s. c.* 3. 480. Supply *store.* 4. 510. 5. 541, 6. 6. 482, note. 7. *Adj., c. n.* As a noun, it is modified by *the*; as an adjective, it is modified by *truly.* 8. *S., s. c.* 9. 272.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED

551. *One of the following sentences is correct. Correct the errors in the others:*

1. Who did this? Us girls. 2. To desire to be him is foolish. 3. Browns store. 4. In Cooper's & Conard's store. 5. Are them yourn? 6. Who were you with?

7. It could not have been me. 8. The boys they left it. 9. Hand them me. 10. You are stronger than him. 11. It was them. 12. Me being away, they could not go. 13. Nothing must come between you and I. 14. Let you and I go. 15. May Mary and me go? 16. Tell me who you think did it. 17. Do you know who this cane belongs to? 18. Whom do they say that I am? 19. Whom did you say came with you? 20. It was her whom you thought took the book. 21. I do not know what is best to do. 22. There are few persons recite better. 23. Here's none but thee and I. 24. Let him be whom he may, I fear him not. 25. That tableaux was beautiful.

It should be remembered that grammatical forms were more loosely used in early English than at present, and that many expressions once sanctioned by good writers are now considered incorrect.

COMPOSITION. — SENTENCES

CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES

General Rules

552. In the construction of sentences, the following rules should be observed :

1. Do not violate any grammatical rules.
2. Do not make your sentences *too long*.

To produce the best effect, both long and short sentences should be used. The common error of running several independent sentences together should be avoided. (575, 2.)

The aim must be to convey the greatest quantity of thought with the smallest quantity of words. — *Spencer*. Long sentences fatigue the reader's attention. — *Blair*.

3. Arrange the parts of each sentence so that it will express just what you mean it to express.

4. See that every sentence is punctuated properly and especially that it is followed by the proper punctuation mark. Learn to use punctuation marks in the same way that you have learned to spell, *i.e.* without conscious effort.

5. Aim at *variety of expression*. Avoid mannerisms, stereotyped ways of expressing thought, etc.

Variety of expression may be obtained by changing the *arrangement* of the parts of a sentence, by changing its *structure*, by changing its *phraseology*, etc.

Structure of Sentences Changed

553. Sentences may be changed in structure —

1. By changing the *voice* of the verb; as, "Columbus discovered America." "America was discovered by Columbus." (611, etc.)

2. By using or omitting *it*, the preparatory pronoun, or *there*, the adverb of position; as, "It is wrong to steal." "To steal is wrong." "There was no one here." "No one was here." (348, 1; 206.)

EXERCISE

554. *Change the structure of the following sentences:*

1. By whom was the telephone invented? 2. Who discovered the source of the Nile? 3. And the wagons and the oxen were taken by Moses and given unto the Levites. — *See Num. vii. 6.* 4. To become a good mechanic requires skill and patience. 5. There was nothing heard.

Phraseology of Sentences Changed

555. Sentences may be changed in phraseology —

1. By using words instead of phrases or clauses; as, “*Wise men act cautiously,*” for “*Men of wisdom act with caution,*” or “*Men who are wise act cautiously.*” “*Wealth acquired dishonestly,*” etc., for “*Wealth that is acquired dishonestly,*” etc.

2. By using phrases or clauses instead of words; as, “*We study that we may improve,*” for “*We study to improve.*” “*He acted with promptness,*” for “*He acted promptly.*”

3. By using abridged clauses for unabridged clauses, and the reverse; as, “*Shame being lost, all virtue is lost,*” for “*When shame is lost, all virtue is lost.*” “*I believe that the earth is round,*” for “*I believe the earth to be round.*” (271.)

4. By using synonyms and other equivalent expressions; as, “*He is fortunate,*” for “*He is lucky.*” “*‘I will go with her,’ he said,*” for “*He said that he would go with her.*” “*Mr. S.’s horses,*” for “*The horses belonging to Mr. S.*”

5. By denying the contrary; as, “*He is not dead,*” for “*He is alive.*” “*She is not indisposed to help you,*” for “*She is disposed to help you.*”

6. By recasting the sentence; as —

Iron is the most useful metal.

Iron is more useful than any other metal.

No other metal is so useful as iron.

The most useful of all metals is iron.

No other metal equals iron in usefulness.

Iron is unequalled in usefulness by any other metal.

Iron excels all other metals in usefulness.

Every other metal is less useful than iron.

EXERCISES

556. Use words instead of the italicized phrases and clauses:

1. At *what place* shall we stop? 2. It is wrong *that any one should steal*. 3. Blessings on thee, boy *with bare feet!* 4. Who is like *unto Thee?* 5. He bought the doll *for his little daughter*.

557. Use phrases or clauses instead of the italicized words:

1. *Where* shall we stop? 2. He strives *to excel*. 3. This is the house *built by Jack*. 4. Barefoot boy, with *tanned* cheek. 5. Pay *him* the money.

558. Change the italicized clauses (555, 3):

1. *Spring having come*, all nature is clothed in beauty. 2. The workmen desired *their employer to raise their wages*. 3. I know *that they are honorable men*.

559. Use equivalent expressions for the italicized elements:

1. *Shorten* the statement. 2. Do not *attempt* to cross the river. 3. I am *ruler of everything I see*. 4. The lion is the *desert's* king. 5. The money *belonging to him* was soon spent. 6. Bring *me* the book. 7. She gave the sword *to him*.

560. Deny the contrary:

1. He is wise. 2. Only a small part of Arabia is fertile. 3. I am unhappy. 4. I will remain with you. 5. We looked on nothing we could call our own.

561. *Recast the following sentences, expressing the same thought in as many ways as possible :*

1. London is the largest city in the world. 2. Siberia occupies the entire northern part of Asia. 3. Solomon said that the wounds of a friend are faithful. 4. Few persons have the courage of their convictions. 5. Does any one know what electricity is?

Commands made Less Emphatic

562. A **command** may be made *less emphatic* by using an interrogative or a declarative sentence instead of an imperative sentence; as, "Will you come here?" or, "I desire you to come here," for "Come here."

EXERCISE

563. *Use interrogative and declarative sentences instead of the following imperative sentences :*

1. Study. 2. Try again. 3. Advance. 4. Pay as you go. 5. "O stay!"¹ the maiden said.

1. Change "O stay!"

Statements Emphasized

564. A **statement** may be made *more emphatic*—

1. By using the interrogative or the exclamatory form; as, "Is not the night dark?" or, "How dark the night is!" for "The night is dark."

2. By denying the contrary. (555, 5.)

3. By changing the natural order of the words.

EXERCISE

565. *Make the following statements more emphatic:*

1. Time flies.
2. It is hot.
3. Diana is great.
4. Her locks were yellow.
5. A wise son maketh a glad father.

— *Prov. xv. 20.*

Statements Combined

566. Two or more separate statements may sometimes be *combined*—

1. Into a *simple sentence*.

Separate Statements. — Jonathan Swift was born in Dublin. His parents were English. He was born in 1667.

Combined. — Jonathan Swift was born in Dublin, of English parents, in 1667.

2. Into a *complex sentence*.

Separate Statements. — A natural magnet is an iron ore. It is composed of iron and oxygen. It is called a loadstone.

Combined. — A natural magnet, or loadstone, is an iron ore that is composed of iron and oxygen.

3. Into a *compound sentence*.

Separate Statements. — A wise son heareth his father's instruction. A scorner heareth not rebuke.

Combined. — A wise son heareth his father's instruction; but a scorner heareth not rebuke.

4. Into a *contracted compound sentence*.

Separate Statements. — A French frigate captured an American schooner. It was afterward captured by an American frigate. The French frigate's name was *Insurgente*; the American schooner's, *Retaliation*; and the American frigate's, *Constellation*.

Combined. — The French frigate *Insurgente* captured the American schooner *Retaliation*, and was afterward captured by the American frigate *Constellation*.

The following exercise is valuable, as affording a means for securing variety of expression; but care should be taken not to combine long, independent statements into a single sentence. As a rule, learn to express your thoughts clearly in short sentences.

EXERCISE

567. *Combine each group of statements into —*

1. *A simple sentence.* Babylon was the capital of the Babylonian Empire. It was situated on the Euphrates. It was situated about fifty miles south of Bagdad.

2. *A simple sentence.* The Colossus of Rhodes was a statue. It was of brass. It was erected in honor of Apollo.

3. *A complex sentence.* William Henry Harrison died April 6, 1841. He became President March 4, 1841.

4. *A complex sentence.* The Great Pyramid was built by Cheops. Cheops was a king of Egypt. He employed ten thousand men twenty years in its erection.

5. *A compound sentence.* The fear of the Lord is the beginning of knowledge. Fools despise wisdom. Fools despise instruction. — *See Prov. i. 7.*

6. *A compound sentence.* Pocahontas implored her father to save Captain Smith's life. She was the daughter of Powhatan. Her prayer was finally granted.

7. *A contracted compound sentence.* George Washington was unanimously chosen President of the United States. He took the oath of office April 30, 1789.

8. *A contracted compound sentence.* Venus can sometimes be seen in the daytime. It is occasionally so bright after sunset as to throw a shadow.

9. *Two sentences.* Francis Bacon was born in London. He was born in 1561. He was an eminent philosopher

and jurist. Besides his "Essays," his principal works are "On the Advancement of Learning" and the "Novum Organum." The "Essays" are wonderful specimens of crystallized thought. Bacon died in 1626.

10. *Three sentences.* Charles Dickens was born at Portsmouth. He was born in 1812. He was an English novelist. He was celebrated. His first sketches were published in the "Monthly Magazine." They were signed "Boz." His works furnish a large number of characters. The characters are sharply drawn. They are easily recognized.

Statements Separated

568. A sentence may sometimes be *separated into several statements.*

Sentence.—The fame of Ben Jonson, who was born in 1574 and died in 1637, rests on his dramatic works, in which he is excelled by Shakspeare only.

Separate Statements.—Ben Jonson was born in 1574 and died in 1637. His fame rests on his dramatic works, in which he is excelled by Shakspeare only.

EXERCISE

569. *Separate the following sentences into two or more statements:*

1. Richard Lovelace was born in 1618, and was educated at Oxford.

2. The wedge is a movable inclined plane, and it usually has the form of a double inclined plane.

3. Wordsworth's sister Dora was his constant companion, the complement of his nature, and more truly poetical than he.

4. Nebraska is formed from a part of the territory of Nebraska, and is the seventh State, in the great basin of the Mississippi, admitted from the Louisiana purchase.

5. In 1813 Captain James Lawrence was appointed to the command of the United States frigate Chesapeake, then in Boston harbor, and on June 1, with a raw crew, he put to sea and attacked the British frigate Shannon, which was lying just out of the harbor; but after a short engagement, in which every officer was killed or wounded, including Captain Lawrence, who, while dying, issued his last heroic order, "Don't give up the ship!" the enemy boarded the Chesapeake and hoisted the British flag.

COMPOSITION OF SENTENCES

570. A sentence is a short composition. It should be regarded as a unit, and written so as to express a complete thought. A thought contains two leading ideas, each of which may or may not be modified. Thus the thought expressed by the sentence "Intelligence rules," contains two ideas, neither of which is modified. The leading ideas in the thought expressed by the sentence "The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea," *herd* and *winds* are modified by the ideas expressed by the other words of the sentence.

571. Thoughts may be expressed—

1. By *sentences*; as, "A verse is a line of poetry." "Blank verse is poetry that does not rhyme." "Times change, and we change with them." A sentence expresses a complete thought.

2. By clauses; as, "*That you have wronged me, doth appear in this.*" "*If I may but touch the hem of his garment, I shall be healed.*" A clause expresses a dependent, or subordinate, thought.

572. A simple sentence expresses a single complete thought. The leading ideas of the thought may be unmodified or modified; as, "Music charms." "A summer bivouac had collected together a little troop of soldiers from Joppa."

573. A complex sentence expresses a complete thought, in which a dependent, or subordinate, thought is a modifier; as, "Substances that rise in air are lighter than air." The clause "*that rise in air*" expresses a dependent, or subordinate, thought which modifies the general idea expressed by the noun *substances*.

574. A compound sentence is in reality two or more sentences, each of which expresses a complete thought; as, "God made the country and man made the town." The members of the compound sentence are mutually related.

575. The following suggestions should be closely followed:

1. Begin every sentence with what you want the reader to think of first, and select with care the words with which the sentence is to end.

2. See that every sentence has one leading thought. Many "sentences" are made up of several sentences loosely run together; as, "Andree started in a balloon for the North Pole, which has eluded the search of the

most daring explorers, whose bones lie bleaching amid the snows of the frozen North, where for six months of the year the sun never shines." Can you correct this sentence?

3. See that every sentence expresses its meaning clearly. If you have any doubt about the meaning expressed, re-write the sentence. Make it a rule to write each sentence so that its meaning must be understood by the reader.

4. See that every sentence is grammatically correct. It is a good plan to try to analyze a sentence, the construction of which is obscure. Do not use a sentence that defies grammatical analysis. Arrange the modifying elements so that every one will know what words they modify.

EXERCISES

576. *Write answers to the following questions. Let each answer be a sentence.*

1. What place would you like to visit? 2. What is the most interesting book you have read? 3. Which holiday do you like best? 4. In which month were you born? 5. Is a cat's tongue rough or smooth? 6. How many legs has a fly? 7. When can an owl see best? 8. What is an island? 9. A triangle? 10. Where is the Suez Canal?

577. *Write a sentence about —*

1. A grain of corn. 2. Potatoes. 3. The root of a plant. 4. Glass. 5. Snow. 6. Springs. 7. The sun. 8. Flowers. 9. Steel pens. 10. The telephone. 11. Clocks. 12. Andrew Jackson. 13. Mexico. 14. Washington. 15. The life of a railroad conductor.

VERBS

578. A **verb** is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to make a statement, to ask a question, or to give a command.

579. A word from another part of speech is sometimes used as a verb; as, This *out-Herods* Herod. — *Shak.* “I *thou* thee.”

CLASSES OF VERBS

Regular and Irregular Verbs

580. *Read the following:*

1. I walk. He walked. They have walked a mile.
2. Birds fly. The birds flew away. The birds have flown away.
3. Go, went, going, gone, to go. Study, studied, studying, studied, to study.

Which of the foregoing verbs express present time? Which past? Do “walked” and “have walked” both express past time? “Flew” and “have flown”? Which is the simplest form, “flew” or “have flown”? Will “go” make sense with “have” before it? Will “went”? “Going”? “Gone”? Does “going” represent the act as continuing? Does “studying”? “Studied”? Which verb begins with “to”?

To which of the foregoing verbs do we add “ed” to express past time? To which is “ed” not added?

Study, studied, studying, studied, and *to study* are called the principal parts of the verb *study*, because by means of them and the auxiliary verbs all the other parts of the verb can be formed. *Go, went, going, gone,* and *to go* are called the principal parts of *go* for the same reason.

581. The **principal parts** of a verb are the following *forms*:

1. The **present indicative**, or the simplest form of the verb. It generally expresses present time; as, *study, go*.
2. The **past indicative**, or the simplest form of the verb that expresses past time; as, *studied, went*.
3. The **present participle**, or the form of the verb that ends with *ing*. It generally represents an act as continuing; as, *studying, going*.
4. The **perfect participle**, or the form of the verb that makes sense with the word *have* before it. It generally represents an act as completed; as, *studied, gone*.
5. The **present infinitive**, or the form of the verb that usually begins with *to*. It generally represents an act as present at the time denoted by some other verb; as, *to study; to go*. "I wish him *to go*." "I wished him *to go*."

These forms are called *principal parts* because by means of them and the auxiliary verbs (609) all the other parts of the verb can be formed; as, *can go; have gone; shall go; might have gone*, etc. (See conjugation.)

The terms *participle* and *infinitive* are used throughout this work simply to name certain *forms of verbs and verbals*.

582. Verbs are divided according to their form into two classes: *regular verbs* and *irregular verbs*.

583. A **regular verb** is a verb that forms its past indicative and perfect participle by the addition of *ed* to the present indicative. Illustrate.

584. An **irregular verb** is a verb that does not form its past indicative and perfect participle by the addition of *ed* to the present indicative. Illustrate.

585. A **redundant verb** is a verb that has more than one form for some of its principal parts ; as, *crow*, *crowed*, *crew* (past indicative). *Eat*, *ate*, *eat* (past indicative); *eaten*, *eat* (perfect participle).

586. A **defective verb** is a verb that does not have all the principal parts ; as, *beware* (but one form); *can*, *could* (no participle and infinitive forms).

Most of the so-called irregular verbs are verbs of the *old*, or *strong*, conjugation. Regular verbs (*i.e.* verbs of the *ed* class) belong to the *new*, or *weak*, conjugation. See "Strong and weak verbs," p. 325.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS

587. In the following list, words marked with a star (*) are generally either obsolete or new words. As a rule, they should not be used. Those marked with an R take also the regular ending *ed*. When two or more forms are given, the one sanctioned by the best modern usage is generally given first. Sometimes, however, the second form is preferred in certain uses ; as, "He was *struck* with a ball." "She is *stricken* with sorrow."

In reciting, name the principal parts as follows: pres. ind., *abide*; past ind., *abode*; pres. part., *abiding*; perf. part., *abode*; pres. inf., *to abide*.

Why is not a list of regular verbs given?

<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Abide	abode	abode	Beget	begot	begotten
Am, or be	was	been		begat*	begot*
Arise	arose	arisen	Begin	began	begun
Awake	awoke, R.	R., awoke*	Behold	beheld	beheld
Bear ¹	bore, bare	borne, born	Bend	bent, R.*	bent, R.*
(bring forth)			Bereave	bereft, R. ²	bereft, R. ²
Bear (carry)	bore	borne	Beseech	besought	besought
Beat	beat	beaten	Bet	bet, R.*	bet, R.*
		beat	Bid	bade	bidden
Become	became	become		bid	bid
Befall ²	befell	befallen	Bind	bound	bound

<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Bite	bit	bitten	Feed	fed	fed
Bleed	bled	bled	Feel	felt	felt
Blow	blew	blown	Fight	fought	fought
Break	broke brake *	broken	Find	found	found
Breed	bred	bred	Flee	fled	fled
Bring	brought	brought	Fling	flung	flung
Build	built, R.*	built, R.*	Fly	flew	flown
Burn	R., ⁴ burnt	R., ⁴ burnt	Forbear	forbore	forborne
Burst	burst	burst	Forget	forgot	forgotten
Buy	bought	bought	Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Cast	cast	cast	Freeze	froze	frozen
Catch	caught, R.*	caught, R.*	Freight	R.	R., freight
Chide	chid	chidden chid	Get	got	got gotten
Choose	chose	chosen	Gild	R., gilt	R., gilt
Cleave (adhere)	R., cleave	R.	Gird	R., girt	R., girt
Cleave (split)	cleft clave	cleft, R. cloven	Give	gave	given
Cling	clung	clung	Go	went ⁷	gone
Clothe	clad, R.	clad, R.	Grave	R.	R., graven
Come	came	come	Grind	ground	ground
Cost	cost	cost	Grow	grew	grown
Creep	crept	crept	Hang ⁸	hung	hung
Crow	R., crew*	R.	Have	had	had
Cut	cut	cut	Hear	heard	heard
Dare ⁵	R., durst	R., durst	Heave	R., hove	R., hoven*
Deal	dealt, R.*	dealt, R.*	Hew	R.	R., hewn
Dig	dug, R.*	dug, R.*	Hide	hid	hidden hid
Do	did	done	Hit	hit	hit
Draw	drew	drawn	Hold	held	held holden*
Dream,	R., dreamt	R., dreamt	Hurt	hurt	hurt
Drink	drank	drunk ⁶	Keep	kept	kept
Drive	drove	driven	Kneel	knelt, R.	knelt, R.
Dwell	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.	Knit	knit, R.	knit, R.
Eat	ate eat	eaten eat*	Know	knew	known
Fall	fell	fallen	Lade	R.	R., laden
			Lay	laid	laid

<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Lead	led	led	Shake	shook	shaken
Leave	left	left	Shape	R.	R., shapen*
Lend ⁹	lent	lent	Shave	R.	R., shaven
Let	let	let	Shear	R., shore*	R., shorn
Lie ¹⁰ (recline)	lay	lain	Shed	shed	shed
Light	R., lit*	R., lit*	Shine	shone, R.*	shone, R.*
Lose	lost	lost	Shoe	shod	shod
Make	made	made	Shoot	shot	shot
Mean	meant	meant	Show	showed	shown, R.
Meet	met	met	Shred	shred	shred
Mow	R.	R., mown	Shrink	shrank	shrunken*
Pay	paid	paid	Shrunk	shrunk	shrunk
Pen ¹¹ (fence in)	R., pent	R., pent	Shut	shut	shut
Plead	R., plead*	R., plead*	Sing	sang	sung
Prove ¹²	R.	R., proven*	Sung	sung	sung
Put	put	put	Sink	sank	sunk
Quit	quit, R.	quit, R.	Sit	sat	sat
Rap* ¹⁸ (seize with rapture)	R., rapt*	R., rapt	Slay	slew	slain
Read	read	read	Sleep	slept	slept
Rend	rent	rent	Slide	slid	slid
Rid	rid	rid	Slid	slid	slidden
Ride	rode	ridden	Sling	slung	slung
Ring	rang	rung	Slink	slunk	slunk
Rise	rose	risen	Slit	slit	slit
Rive	rived	riven, R.	Smell	smelt, R.	smelt, R.
Run	ran	run	Smite	smote	smitten
Saw	R.	R., sawn	Sow	R.	sown, R.
Say	said	said	Speak	spoke	spoken
See	saw	seen	Spoke	spoke	spoken
Seek	sought	sought	Spoke	spoke	spoken
Seethe	R., sod*	R., sodden*	Speed	sped, R.*	sped, R.*
Sell	sold	sold	Spell	R., spelt	R., spelt
Send	sent	sent	Spend	spent	spent
Set	set	set	Spill	spilt, R.	spilt, R.
			Spin	spun	spun
			Spit ¹⁴	spit	spit
			Spit	spit	spit
			Split	split	split
			Spoil	R., spoilt*	R., spoilt*

<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Spread	spread	spread	Swim	swam	swum
Spring	sprang	sprung		swum	
	sprung		Swing	swung	swung
Stand	stood	stood	Take	took	taken
Stave	stove, R.	stove, R.	Teach	taught	taught
Stay ¹⁶ (remain)	staid	staid	Tear	tore	torn
Steal	stole	stolen	Tell	told	told
Stick	stuck	stuck	Think	thought	thought
Sting	stung	stung	Thrive	R., throve	R., thriven
Stink	stank	stunk	Throw	threw	thrown
	stunk		Thrust	thrust	thrust
Strew	R.	R., strewn	Tread	trod	trodden
Stride	strode	stridden			trod
	strid	strid	Wake	R., woke *	R., woke *
Strike	struck	struck	Wax	R.	R., waxen *
		stricken	Wear	wore	worn
String	strung	strung	Weave	wove, R.*	woven, R.*
Strive	strove	striven	Wed	R., wed *	R., wed *
Strow	R.	strown, R.	Weep	wept	wept
Swear	swore	sworn	Wet	wet, R.*	wet, R.*
	sware *		Win	won	won
Sweat	sweat, R.	sweat, R.	Wind	wound	wound ¹⁶
Sweep	swept	swept	Work	R., wrought	R., wrought
Swell	R.	R., swollen	Wring	wrung	wrung
			Write	wrote	written

1. The verb *bear* (to bring forth) has two perfect participles: *borne* in the active voice, and *born* in the passive. 2. *Derivative verbs* generally form their principal parts in the same way as the words from which they are derived; as, *befall*, *mistake*, *undergo*. 3. The irregular form is preferred. 4. The regular form is preferred. 5. *Dare*, to challenge, is regular. 6. *Drank* is incorrectly given by some authors as the perfect participle of *drink*. 7. *Went* is a contraction of *wended*, the past indicative of the AS. *wendan*, to wend or go. 8. *Hang*, to suspend by the neck, is generally regular. 9. Do not use *loan* as a verb. 10. *Lie*, to tell a falsehood, is regular. 11. *Pen*, to write, is regular. 12. The form *proven* should not be used. 13. *Rap*, to knock, is regular. 14. *Spit*, to pierce with a spit, is regular. 15. *Stay*, to cause to stop, is regular. 16. *Wind*, to blow, is sometimes regular; as, That blast *was winded*. — *Scott*. But also, His horn he *wound*. — *Scott*.

Helped is now used instead of *holp* as the past of *help*. *Begin*, *drink*, *run*, *sing*, etc., preserve the original *a* in the past indicative. *Cling*, *fling*, *spin*, *sting*, etc., have lost it and have taken the modern form with *u*. *Fret*, *knead*, *weigh*, and some other verbs were formerly "strong" verbs. Shakspeare uses *gat* instead of *got*.

Defective Verbs

<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Beware ¹	—	—	Methinks ⁴	methought	—
Can ²	could	—	Must	must	—
Do (aux.) ³	did	—	Ought ⁵	ought	—
Have (aux.) ³	had	—	—	quoth ⁶	—
List	—	—	Shall	should	—
May	might	—	Will (aux.) ³	would	—
Meseems ⁴	meseemed	—	Wot ⁷	wist	—

1. *Beware*, from *be* and *aware*, has no participles. It is used in the present tense, and imperative or infinitive mood. 2. *Can*, *do*, *have*, *may*, *must*, *ought*, *shall*, and *will* are called *auxiliary verbs*. (609.) They have no participles or infinitives. 3. *Do*, *have*, and *will* are frequently used as *principal verbs*. *Would* (= wish) is sometimes thus used in the present indicative. 4. The prefix *me* is the dative of the pronoun *I*. The subject is the clause that follows the verb. (703.) 5. *Ought* is called by some grammarians a principal verb. 6. *Quoth* is used in the past indicative only. It is equivalent to *said*; as, "*Quoth* the raven, Nevermore." 7. *Wot* (AS. *witan*, to know) is used in the Bible, etc. The present infinitive is *wit*, which is used in *to wit*, meaning *namely*.

EXERCISES

588. Write all the principal parts of the verbs in the following list. Study the forms of the first six verbs with great care.

Raise, rise, lie (to recline), lay, set, sit, tell, find, flow, flee, fly, try, steal, ride, love, lend, take, quit, prove, am, go, freeze, lose, loose, pay, say, send, shoot, spend, think, wear, bite, catch, may, forget, show, ought, must, do, blow, break, drive, feel, give, grow, know, leave, tear, choose, understand.

589. State the present indicative, past indicative, and perfect participle of the following verbs, using "I" as the subject:

Follow this form: "I study," "I studied," "I have studied." Add "it" when the verb requires a direct object; thus, "I see it," etc.

Study, see, saw, swim, ring, come, begin, stand, run, sing, cry, laugh, feed, eat, heat, speak, lead, read, sell, shake, sleep, teach, learn, write, throw, build, burn, dig, hide, work.

Finite and Non-finite Verbs

590. Read the following sentences :

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. She believes <i>that I am brave.</i> | 7. She believes <i>me to be brave.</i> |
| 2. She believes <i>that you are brave.</i> | 8. She believes <i>you to be brave.</i> |
| 3. She believes <i>that he is brave.</i> | 9. She believes <i>him to be brave.</i> |
| 4. She believes <i>that they are brave.</i> | 10. She believes <i>them to be brave.</i> |
| 5. <i>Because he has come,</i> I shall go. | 11. <i>He having come,</i> I shall go. |
| 6. <i>Because they have come,</i> I shall go at once. | 12. <i>They having come,</i> I shall go at once. |

What is the subject of the verb "am," in the first sentence? Of the verb "are," in the second? Of "is," in the third? In what person is the pronoun "I"? "You"? "He"? Does the verb change its form to agree with the person of its subject? May we say "I are"? "You is"? "He are"? Is the verb "am" limited to a certain form by the person of its subject "I"? Is "are" limited in the same way by "you"? Is "is" by "he"? May not these verbs be called limited verbs? Since *finite* means limited, what may they be called?

What is the subject of the verb "to be," in the seventh sentence? In the eighth? In the ninth? In what person is "me"? "You"? "Him"? Does the verb "to be" change its form to suit the person of its subject? Why may it be called a non-finite verb?

What is the subject of "is," in the third sentence? Of "are," in the fourth? Does the verb have the same form for both numbers? Is it limited by the number of its

subject? What is the subject of "to be," in the ninth sentence? Of "to be," in the tenth sentence? Does "to be" change its form to suit the number of its subject? Does "has come," in the fifth sentence? "Have come," in the sixth? "Having come," in the eleventh? "Having come," in the twelfth?

591. Verbs are divided, according to their use as related to subjects, into *finite verbs* and *non-finite verbs*.

592. A **finite verb** is a verb that is limited to a certain form by the person and number of its subject. Illustrate.

593. A **non-finite verb** is a verb that is not limited to a certain form by the person and number of its subject. Illustrate.

594. *Finite verbs* are the predicates of sentences and unabridged clauses; as, "I *believe* that he *is* my friend." *Non-finite verbs* are generally used as the predicates of abridged clauses; as, "I believe him *to be* my friend."

EXERCISE

595. *Point out five finite and four non-finite verbs in the following sentences, and the subject of each:*

1. Beauty is an all-pervading presence. — *Channing*.
 2. Let us go. 3. They believed the place to be abandoned by the enemy. 4. Mazarin desired Cromwell to take part with France in a war against Spain. 5. We unite *him* and *self*, forming the word *himself*.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

596. *Read the following sentences:*

1. John struck James. 2. I see it. 3. Thou hast wandered too long. 4. He wept. 5. The moon had climbed

the highest hill. 6. The snow had begun in the gloaming.
7. My father wishes me to go at once.

Whom did John strike? From whom, and to whom, does the act of striking pass? What word is the direct object of "struck"? Point out the verbs that are followed by direct objects. Does "wept" have a direct object? Does "see"? Does "hast wandered"?

597. Verbs are divided, according to their use as related to objects, into *transitive verbs* and *intransitive verbs*.

598. A **transitive verb** is a verb that has a direct object; as, "He *built* me a bonnie *bower*." "The *bower* was *built*." (In the second sentence the direct object is used as the-subject.) (166, 493, note.) What is meant by "a direct object"?

599. An **intransitive verb** is a verb that does not have a direct object; as, "Summer *wanes*." "Flowers *are* fresh."

600. A verb may be transitive in one sentence and intransitive in another; as, "He *studies* grammar" (tr.). "He *studies*" (intr.). "I *can* not see you" (tr.). "I *can* not see" (intr.). "She *reads* the *poem* with taste" (tr.). "She *reads* with taste" (intr.). "Soft eyes *looked* love" (tr.). "He *looked* again" (intr.).

601. A verb that is usually intransitive sometimes becomes transitive; as, "Napoleon *marched* his *army* across the Alps" (*i.e.* caused his army to march). "The raftsmen *floated* the *wood* down the river." "The groom *walked* the *horse*." "I *dreamed* a *dream*." (494.) "We *must live* a righteous *life*." Soft eyes *looked* love to

eyes that spake again. — *Byron*. “The child *cried herself* to sleep.” “I *laughed myself* hoarse.” “He *looked* the fierce *animal* in the eye.” Which of these verbs are “causative”? Which “reflexive”?

602. Some transitive verbs are followed by two objects, a *direct* and an *indirect* object; as, “Forgive *us* (ind.) our *debts*” (dir.). “Tell *me* the old, old *story*.” “Write *me* a *letter* from home.” (174.) What is the difference between a direct and an indirect object?

Frequently, only the direct object is used; as, “He told the *story*.” Sometimes, only the indirect object is used; as, “He told *me*.” (In this sentence, *me* may be called the direct object of *told*.)

A transitive verb is followed by a direct object not because it is a predicate, but because it expresses an action that terminates in an object. A noun that implies a transitive action may therefore be followed by a clause used as its object; as, “The hope *that I should be rescued* sustained me.” Compare, “I thought *that he was lost*” with “The thought *that he was lost* overpowered them.” It is also correct to say that the clause is in apposition with the noun *thought*. Give other examples.

EXERCISE

603. *Point out the four transitive and three intransitive verbs in the following sentences. Also, five direct and two indirect objects.*

1. He giveth his beloved sleep. — *Psalm cxxvii. 2.* 2. General McClure, who commanded the troops, destroyed Fort George. 3. Where is the little girl who brought me the flowers this morning? 4. To spend too much time in studies is sloth. — *Bacon.* 5. The properties of matter are of two classes, physical and chemical.

Compound and Derivative Verbs

COMPOUND VERBS

604. The principal class of *compound verbs* is the following :

A verb preceded by an adverb or a preposition ; as, *overdo, understand, uplift, withstand, outgrow.*

605. A few verbs are preceded by their objects ; as, *backbite, partake (i.e. take part), browbeat.*

DERIVATIVE VERBS

606. The principal classes of *derivative verbs* are the following :

1. Verbs derived by the use of prefixes (1) from verbs ; as, *arise, abide, bespeak, forgive, undo, dislike* ; (2) from nouns and adjectives, as *becloud, enthrone, renew.*

Principal prefixes : *a* (formerly meaning *away, off* ; now merely intensive), *be* (= *by*) (denoting the application of an action to an object, hence it is used (1) to make intransitive verbs transitive ; as, *bespeak*, (2) to emphasize the meaning of transitive verbs ; as, *bestow*, (3) to form transitive verbs from nouns ; as, *becloud*) ; *for* (implying negation) ; *mis* (implying error) ; *un* (= reversal of action expressed by the simple word).

2. Verbs derived by the use of suffixes from adjectives and nouns ; as, *cleanse, lengthen, soften, solemnize.*

Principal suffixes : *en* (forming factitive verbs from adjectives and occasionally from nouns) ; *se* (forming verbs from adjectives).

3. Verbs derived by changing the vowel sound (1) from verbs ; as, *lay* from *lie* ; (2) from nouns ; as, *sing* from *song*.

4. Verbs derived from nouns by a change of accent ; as, *accènt* from *àccent*, *compòund* from *còmpound*.

EXERCISE

607. *Form verbs from the following words:*

1. *Verbs*: wake, lie, moan, take, pay, tie, capture, get, fall, bind, sit, rise, bid, fasten.

2. *Nouns and adjectives*: danger, little, sweet, fright, knee, nest, spark, throat, scribe, bond, shelf, convert, extract, insult, object, produce, present, rebel, black, human, body, material, food, breath, advice.

PROPERTIES OF VERBS

608. The **properties** of verbs are *voice, mood, tense, person, and number*.

All these properties belong to finite verbs. Non-finite verbs have *voice, mood, and tense*.

609. *May, can, must, might, could, would, should, ought, be* (with its variations¹), *do, did, have, had, shall, and will* help other verbs to express their grammatical properties, hence they are called **auxiliary verbs**.

EXAMPLES. — "I *can* go."² "Thou *canst* go."² "He *has* gone." "They *have* gone." "She *might* have gone." (312, 3; p. 184.)

1. The variations of *be* are *am, art, are, is, was, wast, were, wert, being, and been*.

2. In the verbs *can go* and *canst go* the auxiliaries are finite, as they change their form to agree with the person and number of the subject. *Go* is an infinitive, as it undergoes no change of form to agree with the person and number of the subject. The two words combined form a finite verb. (312, 3.)

Voice

610. *Read the following sentences:*

1. John strikes James. 2. James is struck. 3. His father wishes you to punish him. 4. His father wishes him to be punished. 5. The birds sing sweetly. 6. Close his eyes. 7. His work is done.

Who is the actor in the first sentence? Who receives the act? In the second sentence, who receives the act? How is the noun "James" used, in the first sentence? In the second? What change in the form of the verb? What is the subject of the verb "to punish"? The direct object? Is the direct object of "to punish," in the third sentence, made the subject of "to be punished," in the fourth? How has the verb changed its form? Can you make such a change with the fifth sentence? Why not? With the sixth? Why? In the seventh sentence, what is the subject of the verb "is done"? Does "work" denote the actor, or the receiver of the act? Can you change the sentence so as to make the noun "work" the direct object of the verb?

611. **Voice** is a variation in the use and form of a transitive verb to show whether its subject represents the actor or the receiver of the act.

612. There are two voices: the **active** and the **passive**.

613. A transitive verb used to show that its subject represents the actor, is in the **active voice**; as, "James *returned* the book." "Spain *declared* war against England."

614. A transitive verb used to show that its subject represents the receiver of the act, is in the **passive voice**; as, "The book *was returned*." "War *was declared*."

Some grammarians hold that intransitive verbs may be in the active voice. It is, of course, true that the subjects of many intransitive verbs represent the persons or things performing the actions expressed by the verbs; but as intransitive verbs cannot be used so that their subjects represent the persons or things receiving the actions expressed by the verbs, it is thought best to restrict the property of voice to transitive verbs.

615. The *direct object* of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes the *subject* of the verb in the passive voice.

EXAMPLES. — “James *returned* the book” (tr., act.). “Spain *declared* war” (tr., act.). “The book *was returned*” (tr., pass.). “War *was declared* by Spain” (tr., pass.).

616. The *passive voice form* of a verb consists of the auxiliary verb *be* (in any one of its forms) combined with the perfect participle of the verb; as, “Our friends *are not forgotten*.” “When *was it bought?*” (609, note 1.)

Tests for the passive voice: Is the verb in the form shown in 616? Can its subject be made the object of the verb in the active voice? Can it be followed by *by* and the name of the actor?

617. Transitive verbs that do not express action are in the *active voice* when followed by a direct object, and in the *passive voice* when the direct object is made the subject; as, “He *resembles* his sister” (act.). “I *have* the hat” (act.). “The company *owned* the building” (act.). “The building *was owned* by the company” (pass.).

618. The *passive voice* is chiefly used —

1. To state the act, and the receiver of the act, without mentioning the actor; as, “James *was struck*.” (The act and the person who received the act are known; but the person who struck James is not mentioned.)

2. To give variety of expression; as, “Heat *expands* metals.” “Metals *are expanded* by heat.”

619. A few intransitive verbs are sometimes used in the passive form, though they are not in the passive voice; as, “The melancholy days *are come*.” “He *is fallen*.” (666, note.)

620. If a verb in the active voice has a direct and an indirect object, the direct object generally becomes the

subject of the verb in the passive voice, and the indirect object generally becomes the object of a preposition; as, "We offered *him* (ind. obj.) the *money*" (dir. obj.). "The *money* was offered to *him*."

Sometimes the indirect object of a verb in the active voice remains the indirect object of the verb when it is changed to the passive voice; as, "We offered *him* the money." "The money was offered *him*" (ind. obj.). Generally, it is better to supply a preposition.

621. Sometimes, though rarely, the indirect object of a verb in the active voice is made the subject of the verb in the passive voice, and the direct object remains the direct object; as, "We offered *him* the *money*." "*He* was offered the *money*." These forms should be used with caution.

622. The object of a preposition is sometimes made the subject of a verb in the passive voice, and the preposition is combined with the verb; as, "They *laughed* at him" (intrans.). "He *was laughed at*" (trans., pass.). "Have they *sent* for him" (intrans.)? "Has he *been sent for*" (trans., pass.)? "He *was taken care of*."

EXERCISES

623. *In the following sentences point out seven transitive verbs in the active voice, five in the passive voice, and two intransitive verbs. Change the voice of the transitive verbs.*

1. Iron and platinum possess the property of cohesion.
2. Whom did the Queen of Sheba visit?
3. The principle of the lever was discovered by Archimedes.
4. When did Napoleon fight the battle of the Pyramids?
5. No one can be happy without virtue.—*Cicero*.
6. Twenty-nine were ordered to be tied up.—*Macaulay*.
7. At the battle of the Nile only a few of the French vessels escaped, the

English destroying or capturing all the rest. 8. It was lost sight of. 9. We often call Shakspeare myriad-minded. 10. Do many persons believe Venus to be inhabited by beings like ourselves?

624. *Correct the following errors:*

1. Was the song sang well? 2. The wine was drank in her absence. 3. I was thrown the ball. 4. It was left fall. 5. It was forgot.

Mood

625. *Read the following sentences:*

1. James studied the lesson. 2. If James study, he will improve. 3. James can study the lesson. 4. Study the lesson, James. 5. I desire James to study the lesson. 6. James having studied the lesson, the teacher heard him recite it.

Is the act of studying expressed in different ways in these sentences? In which sentence is it expressed as a fact? In which is James commanded to study? In which is the act expressed as merely thought of? In which sentence does the verb show that James has the power to study the lesson? In which sentence is the act expressed by the use of "to" as part of the verb? In which do we find participles used? In what way does the first sentence express the act of studying? The second? The third? The fourth? What form of the verb is used in the first sentence? The second? The third? The fourth? The fifth? The sixth?

626. Mood is a variation in the use and form of a verb to show the manner in which an act or state is expressed

with reference to the person or thing represented by its subject.

The word *mode* is also used to name this property.

627. There are six moods: the *indicative*, the *subjunctive*, the *potential*, the *imperative*, the *infinitive*, and the *participial*. The first four belong to *finite verbs* (592); the last two belong to *non-finite verbs* (593).

MOODS OF FINITE VERBS

Indicative Mood

628. A verb in the **indicative mood** is used in expressing a fact; as, "General Grant *died* July 23, 1885."

629. The fact may sometimes be referred to as a doubt; as, "If Saturn *is* large, Jupiter is larger." An assumed fact may be referred to in the same way; as, "If *I am deceived* [as I probably am], I am lost."

630. The indicative mood is sometimes used in expressing a doubt; as, "If it *rains* to-morrow, I shall not go."

631. The indicative mood may be used *interrogatively*; as, "When *did* Napoleon III *die*?" "Has he *gone*?"

Subjunctive Mood

632. A verb in the **subjunctive mood** is used in expressing what is *merely thought of*.

EXAMPLES. — "If it *rain* to-morrow, I shall not go." (Doubt.) "I would I *were* a boy again." (A wish.) "If I *were* you, I would go." (A supposition.) "If thou hadst been here my brother *had* not *died*." (A mere conclusion.)

633. In the subjunctive mood, *be* is used instead of *am*, *are*, and *is*, and *were* instead of *was*. (718.)

634. A verb in the subjunctive mood is generally used in a dependent proposition, or clause; as, "*If I go*, I shall go alone."

635. *If, though, that, lest, except, unless, whether*, or a similar conjunction, generally precedes the subjunctive mood; as, "*If I were*," etc. "*If I had been*," etc.

The verb or its first auxiliary is sometimes placed before the subject, and the conjunction *if* is then omitted; as, "*Were I*," etc. "*Had I been*," etc. In analysis, the omitted conjunction may be supplied.

The group of forms which belong to the subjunctive mood are more sparingly used now than they used to be; but as regards their nature and functions they have never changed.—*Mason*. To the pure subjunctives of conclusion, good writers now generally prefer the subjunctive potential forms; as, *would be, would have been, should be*, etc.—*Kerl*.

Potential Mood

636. A verb in the potential mood is used in expressing power, permission, possibility, compulsion, duty, inclination, or a wish.

EXAMPLES.—"*I can go.*" "*I may go.*" "*It may rain.*" "*I must go.*" "*I should go.*" "*I would go.*" "*May you prosper!*"

The potential mood in its simplest form is composed of an auxiliary and an infinitive. If the two words were construed separately, the auxiliary would be in the indicative or the subjunctive mood; as, "*I know that he could go*" (ind.). "*I must do it*" (ind.). "*I could do it if I tried*" (subj.). "*I hope that he may succeed*" (subj.). See "Potential Mood," p. 323.

637. The signs of the potential mood are the auxiliaries *may, can, must, might, could, would, should, and ought*.

Shall in the sense of *must*, and *will* when it expresses volition, belong rather to the potential mood than to the indicative; but, to avoid troublesome distinctions, they are always considered as belonging to the indicative mood.—*Kerl*.

638. The potential mood may be used *interrogatively*; as, "*May I go?*" "*My father, must I stay?*"

Imperative Mood

639. A verb in the **imperative mood** is used in expressing a command or a request; as, “*Go away.*” “*Forgive our trespasses.*”

640. The imperative mood is sometimes used in expressing permission, or a strong wish; as, “*Go and play.*” “*God pity them both.*”

641. The *subject* of a verb in the imperative mood is generally *you*, *thou*, or *ye*, understood; as, “*Come here*” (= *Come you here*). “*Honor thy father and thy mother.*”

Why is a verb in the imperative mood usually in the second person?

642. Sometimes the subject is expressed; as, “*Cleanse thou me from secret faults.*” Find this quotation.

643. Sometimes the subject is in the first or the third person; as, *Cursed be I* that did so. — *Shak.* *Come we*, who love the Lord. — *Watts.* “*Now tread we a measure,*” said young Lochinvar. — *Scott.* *Be it so.* — *Webster.* “*Thy kingdom come.*” *Laugh those who can, weep those who may.* — *Scott.*

MOODS OF NON-FINITE VERBS

Infinitive Mood

644. A verb in the **infinitive mood** consists of the form that generally begins with *to*, and it is used in expressing a fact.

EXAMPLES. — “The commander ordered the city *to be burned.*” “He believed his friend *to have been wronged.*” Before these days rose up Theudas, boasting himself *to be* somebody. — *Acts v. 36.* (276, 1.)

645. The word *to* may be called the sign of the infinitive mood. It should not be separated from the rest of the verb by another word; as, "Frequently *to study*," or "*To study* frequently," not "*To* frequently *study*." It should not end a sentence.

646. *To* is not used after the active voice of the verbs *bid, let, make, hear, feel, and see* (and equivalents of *see*; as, *behold, observe, etc.*); and sometimes after *dare, have, help, need, etc.*; as, "Bid him *take* the money." "Let him *die*." "I felt something *touch* me."

This rule applies to verbals as well as to non-finite verbs.

Remember that the non-finite verb is *take, die, touch*; not *to take, to die, to touch*.

647. A verb in the infinitive mood is used as the predicate of a *clause*, but not of a sentence; as, "Let *him* go." "The commander ordered *the city to be burned*" (= *that the city be burned*). (273, etc.)

Participial Mood

648. A verb in the **participial mood** consists of one or more participles, and is generally used in expressing a fact.

EXAMPLES. — "Spring *returning*, flowers appear." "The letter *having been written*, his work was done." I never heard of this *being questioned*. — *Bishop McIlwaine*. "Their *being* Englishmen protected them."

649. A verb in the participial mood is frequently used as the predicate of a *clause*. See examples, 648. (271, etc.)

650. Sometimes a non-finite verb in the participial mood is coordinate with a finite verb; as, The crisped brooks

. . . *ran* nectar, *visiting* each plant. — *Milton*. (*Visiting* = *and visited*.) The words *self* (sing.) and *selves* (plu.) *are added* to *my, our, thy, your, him, her, it, and them, forming* a class of compound personal pronouns, which have two principal uses. — *Whitney* ("Ess. of Eng. Gr.," p. 71). (*Are added* and *forming* are the predicates of the sentence.) As for Saul, he *made* havoc of the church, *entering* into every house, and *haling* men and women *committed* them to prison. — *Acts viii. 3*. Ulysses *wakes*, not *knowing* where he was. — *Pope*. (130.) Compare the following sentences: I . . . *am* a jealous God, *visiting* the iniquity . . . and *showing* mercy . . . — *Bible*. I . . . *am* a jealous God, and *visit* the sins . . . and *show* mercy . . . — *Book of Common Prayer*.

EXERCISES

651. *In what mood are the following verbs?*

1. Frederick the Great became¹ king of Prussia in 1740.
2. Charge, Chester, charge! — *Scott*.
3. I would go, if I were you.
4. Ring out, wild bells, and let him die! — *Tennyson*.
5. We insist on everything being proved. — *Chalmers*.
6. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. — *Lincoln*.
7. Asbury having come, we remained.
8. O that I had gone!
9. I might have felt something touching me.
10. God said, Let there be light!

1. In the indicative mood there are 5 verbs; subjunctive, 2; potential, 3; imperative, 5; infinitive, 2; and participial, 3.

652. *Correct the following errors:*

1. Please, can I go?
2. I wish I was in Dixie.
3. Let him to go.
4. Would I was her.
5. He hasn't gone, and he don't intend to.

Tense

653. *Read the following sentences:*

1. James studies his lesson.
2. James studied his lesson.
3. James will study his lesson.
4. Run, ran, will run ; come, came, shall come ; do, did, shall do, will do.

Read the verbs in the foregoing sentences. Which verb expresses a present act? Which a past act? Which a future act? Which of the verbs, beginning with "run," can be used to express a present act? A past act? A future act? Do they differ in form? Into what three parts do we divide time? Do these verbs change their form to distinguish time?

5. James studies his lesson to-day.
6. James has studied his lesson to-day.
7. James studied his lesson when I came.
8. James had studied his lesson when I came.
9. James will study his lesson when I come.
10. James will have studied his lesson when I come.
11. Run, has run ; ran, had run ; will run, will have run.

Do the verbs in the fifth and sixth sentences refer to present time? Does the fifth sentence state that James has completed the act of studying? Does the sixth? May I say, "James has studied yesterday"? Why not? Does "has studied" represent an act as completed in present time? In the seventh sentence, to what time does "studied" refer? "Had studied," in the eighth? Which one simply represents a past act? Which one represents an act as completed in past time? Which two verbs refer to future time? Which one shows that the studying is completed in future time? Mention the three verbs that

show that the act of studying is completed. Which one shows that it is completed in present time? In past time? In future time? Do the verbs change their form to show that an act is completed?

654. Tense is a variation in the use and form of a verb to distinguish time.

655. There are six tenses: the *present*, the *present perfect*, the *past*, the *past perfect*, the *future*, and the *future perfect*.

The past tense is sometimes called the imperfect tense, or the preterit; the present perfect tense is sometimes called the perfect tense; and the past perfect, the pluperfect.

656. The present and the past tense may each be expressed by a single word; as, *go*, *went*. (581, 1, 2.)

Frequently an auxiliary verb and a present infinitive or a present participle are used to express the present and the past tense; as, *do go*, *is going*, *can go*, *may be going*, *ought to go*, *did go*, *was going*.

657. *Have (has)* and *had* are the signs of the perfect tenses. They are combined with a *perfect participle*.

EXAMPLES. — *Have gone*, *has gone*, *had gone*, *shall have gone*, *may have gone*, *have been going*. (581, 4.)

658. *Shall* and *will* are the signs of the future tenses. They are combined with the *present infinitive*.

EXAMPLES. — *Shall go*, *will go*, *shall have gone*, *will have gone*, *shall be going*. *Go*, *have*, and *be* are infinitives (581, 5). *Gone* is a perfect participle (581, 4). *Going* is a present participle (581, 3). Which method of inflection is used for the future tenses? Perfect tenses? (312.) Why are there six tenses?

*NUMBER AND FORM OF THE TENSES OF THE
DIFFERENT MOODS*

659.**Active Voice**

	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Future</i>
<i>Ind.</i>	Do	did	shall do
<i>Subj.</i>	Do	did	—
<i>Pot.</i>	May do	might do	—
<i>Imp.</i>	Do	—	—
<i>Inf.</i>	To do	—	—
<i>Part.</i>	Doing	—	—
	<i>Present Perfect</i>	<i>Past Perfect</i>	<i>Future Perfect</i>
<i>Ind.</i>	Have done	had done	shall have done
<i>Subj.</i>	—	had done	—
<i>Pot.</i>	May have done	might have done	—
<i>Imp.</i>	—	—	—
<i>Inf.</i>	To have done	—	—
<i>Part.</i>	Having done	—	—

660.**Passive Voice**

	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Future</i>
<i>Ind.</i>	Am done	was done	shall be done
<i>Subj.</i>	Be done	were done	—
<i>Pot.</i>	May be done	might be done	—
<i>Imp.</i>	Be done	—	—
<i>Inf.</i>	To be done	—	—
<i>Part.</i>	Being done	—	—
	<i>Present Perfect</i>	<i>Past Perfect</i>	<i>Future Perfect</i>
<i>Ind.</i>	Have been done	had been done	shall have been done
<i>Subj.</i>	—	had been done	—
<i>Pot.</i>	May have been done	might have been done	—
<i>Imp.</i>	—	—	—
<i>Inf.</i>	To have been done	—	—
<i>Part.</i>	Having been done	—	—

How many tenses has each mood? What are they?
How are they formed? In how many moods is each

tense found? What is the sign of the present perfect tense? Of the past perfect? Of the future perfect? Of the future tenses? Of the perfect tenses? Which tenses contain the perfect participle? Which contain the present infinitive? How do the tenses in the passive voice differ from those in the active voice?

The tenses of the indicative mood are the only tenses that refer with any degree of accuracy to the divisions of time indicated by their names.

EXERCISES

661. Write a table like the foregoing (659), with the verb "love." "Try." "Raise." "Rise." "Lie" (to recline). "Lay." "Set." "Sit." "Catch," in the passive voice (660). "Love," in the passive voice. "Forget."

662. In what tense is each of the following verbs?

Run, come, did, shall go, might have gone, were, had been, am, singing, was punished, to go, marching, try, have been made, lie, have sat, lay, undergo, to be rewarded, loved, being rewarded, considered, would try, will have been sold, having purchased, be, can be, must have heard, to have been killed, could produce, ought to repent, shall be found, flew, are fighting, to have gone, beware.

USE OF THE TENSES OF EACH MOOD

Tenses of the Indicative Mood

663. The indicative mood has six tenses.

664. A verb in the present tense of the indicative mood generally represents —

1. A present act or state; as, "The snow *is falling*."
 "The day *is cold*." "They *are married*."

2. A present custom or habit; as, "They *respect* the Sabbath." "He *obeys* orders."

3. A general truth; as, "Evil communications *corrupt* good manners." "Metals *are expanded* by heat."

665. Unchangeable truths and present facts should be expressed in the *present tense*; as, "He said that the earth *is* (not *was*) round." "I *think it is* late;" not "I *should think it was* late."

666. A verb in the present perfect tense of the indicative mood generally represents —

1. An act or state as completed in present time; as, "The troops *have surrendered*." "The weather *has been* cold."

2. An act or state as connected with present time; as, "They *have been married* twenty-seven years." "What striking events *have occurred* this year!"

Are come, is gone, etc., are in the present perfect tense. (A French idiom, 619.)

667. A verb in the past tense of the indicative mood generally represents —

1. A past act or state; as, "It *was snowing* yesterday." "The day *was* cold." "They *were married* last year." "The troops *surrendered*."

2. A past custom or habit; as, "They *respected* the Sabbath." "He *obeyed* orders promptly."

668. The perfect participle should not be used for the *past indicative*, nor the past indicative for the *perfect*

participle; as, "I *did* it;" not "I *done* it." "I have *seen* him;" not "I have *saw* him."

669. A verb in the past perfect tense of the indicative mood generally represents an act or state as completed in past time; as, "The troops *had surrendered* before the reënforcements arrived."

670. A verb in the future tense of the indicative mood generally represents a future act or state; as, "Which *will* you *select*?" "The day *will be* cold."

671. A verb in the future perfect tense of the indicative mood generally represents an act or state as completed in future time; as, "The troops *will have surrendered* before the reënforcements arrive."

672. The present, past, and future tenses are called the simple or absolute tenses; and the present perfect, the past perfect, and the future perfect are called the relative tenses. Why?

673. The simple tenses in the passive voice usually imply completion, and hence they are sometimes equivalent in time to the corresponding relative tenses in the active voice; as, "We *are* not *forgotten*." "They *have* not *forgotten* us."

Tenses of the Subjunctive Mood

674. The subjunctive mood has three tenses: the *present*, the *past*, and the *past perfect*.

675. A verb in the present tense of the subjunctive mood refers to future time, and generally implies doubt or uncertainty; as, "If I *go*, I shall go alone." If love *be* rough with you, be rough with love. — *Shak.*

676. The present perfect tense is sometimes, though rarely, found in the subjunctive mood; as, If the young gentleman *have done* offense, I take the fault on me. — *Shak.*

677. A verb in the past tense of the subjunctive mood refers to present or indefinite time, and generally implies denial; as, "If I *were* you, I should go."

678. A verb in the past perfect tense of the subjunctive mood refers to past time, and generally implies denial; as, "If they *had not retreated*, they would have been killed."

Tenses of the Potential Mood

679. The potential mood has four tenses: the *present*, the *present perfect*, the *past*, and the *past perfect*.

680. A verb in the present tense of the potential mood refers to present or future time; as, "I *may go* now." "I *may go* next week."

681. A verb in the present perfect tense of the potential mood refers to present, past, or future time, and represents the act or state as completed at that time; as, "The child *may have been drowned*." "He *may have gone* yesterday." "By that time he *may have come*."

682. A verb in the past tense of the potential mood may refer to present, past, or future time; as, "He *would go* yesterday, and I *could not prevent* him." "He *would go* now, if he *could*." "He *would go* to-morrow, if he *could*." "Children *should obey* their parents." (At all times.)

683. A verb in the past perfect tense of the potential mood generally refers to past time, and implies denial; as, "I *should have taken* his advice." "He *might have gone* yesterday, if you had not come."

Tense of the Imperative Mood

684. The imperative mood has one tense: the *present*.

685. A verb in the present tense of the imperative mood refers to future time; as, *Charge*, Chester, *charge*. — *Scott*. *Laugh* those who can. — *Id.* “*Be working* when he comes.”

686. Sometimes, though rarely, the present perfect tense is used in the imperative mood; as, *Have done* thy charms. — *Shak.*

Tenses of the Infinitive Mood

687. The infinitive mood has two tenses: the *present* and the *present perfect*.

688. A verb in the present tense of the infinitive mood generally represents an act or state as present or future at the time represented by the principal or finite verb; as, “I desire him *to go*” (pr.). “I desired him *to go*” (pr.). “I expected him *to be* here at this time” (fut.). “The horse was ordered *to be saddled*” (fut.).

689. A verb in the present perfect tense of the infinitive mood represents an act or state as completed at the time represented by the principal, or finite, verb; as, “We believe him *to have been wronged*.” Aristides is said *to have been* most just. — *Cicero*.

Tenses of the Participial Mood

690. The participial mood has two tenses: the *present* and the *present perfect*.

691. A verb in the present tense of the participial mood generally represents an act or a state as present and con-

tinuing at the time represented by the principal, or finite, verb; as, "Spring *approaching*, flowers appear." The crisped brooks . . . ran nectar, *visiting* each plant.—*Milton*. "We saw them *burning* the town." "We saw the town (*being*) *burned*."

692. A verb in the present perfect tense of the participial mood generally represents an act or state as completed at the time represented by the principal, or finite, verb; as, "The troops *having crossed* the river, the fort was attacked." "The river *having been crossed* by the troops, the fort was attacked."

FORMS OF THE TENSES

693. Each tense may be expressed in different ways, called *forms*; as, "He *studies*." "He *does study*." "He *is studying*." "The lesson *is studied*."

The verb *studies* is in the *common form*. *Does study* expresses emphasis, and is in the *emphatic form*. *Is studying* represents the act as continuing, and is in the *progressive form*. *Is studied* is used to express the passive voice, and is called the *passive form*.

694. The **forms** of a tense are the different ways in which it can be expressed.

695. The **common form** is the simplest form of the verb; as, *study, strike, go*.

696. The **emphatic form** expresses emphasis. It is made by using the auxiliary *do* or *did* as a part of the verb; as, *do study, did strike, do go*.

Do and *did* do not make interrogative or negative propositions emphatic.

697. The **progressive form** represents the act or state as continuing. It is made by combining the verb *be* (or some variation of it) with the present participle; as, *am studying, was striking, are going, is being done.*

When the object is merely to express an act, and not to point out the fact of its continuing, this form should not be used.

"The house *is building*," "Our chains *are forging*" (*Wirt*), are correct passive-progressive forms. Of late the following forms are taking their place in the present and the past tense: "The house *is being built*;" "Our chains *are being forged*." Cf. "The missionary *is eating*;" "*is being eaten*."

Unchangeable truths should not be expressed in the progressive form.

What is the difference between "He studies" and "He is studying"? May we say, "I am remembering the circumstance"? "Heat is expanding all metals"? Why not?

698. The **passive form** is the form used to express the passive voice. It is made by combining the verb *be* (or some variation of it) with the perfect participle; as, *is studied, have been struck, are done.* (616.)

Person and Number

699. *Read the following sentences :*

1. She believes that I am brave. 2. I believe that he is brave. 3. He studies. 4. They study. 5. We are brave.

What is the subject of "believes"? In what person is it? Of "believe"? In what person is it? In what person is the subject of "am"? "Is"? Do these verbs change their form to agree with the person of their subjects?

What is the subject of "studies"? In what number is it? Of "study"? In what number is it? In what num-

ber is the subject of "am"? "Are"? Do these verbs change their form to agree with the number of their subject?

Are the foregoing verbs finite, or non-finite? Do non-finite verbs change their form to agree with the person and number of their subjects?

700. The **person** and **number** of a finite verb are variations in its form to agree with the person and number of its subject.

That is, good usage requires finite verbs to be in a certain form to suit the person and number of their subjects. It follows that, like their subjects, they have three persons and two numbers. As a non-finite verb does not change its form to agree with its subject in person and number, it does not have person and number.

701. All verbs except *be* have the same form in the plural number as in the first person singular; as, I *see* (thou *seest*, he *sees*), we *see*, you *see*, they *see*.

702. In the common style, all verbs except *be* have the same form in the second person singular as in the first; as, I *see*, you *see*.

703. In the old or solemn style (350), the verb or the first auxiliary ends with *est* or *st* in the second person singular, and with *eth* or *th* in the third person singular; as, thou *seest*, he *seeth*.

Methinks, *meseems*, etc., are used in the third person only, hence they are called *unipersonal verbs* (p. 321).

In "The Cretans were believed to be liars," the form of *were believed* is determined by the subject of the abridged clause. *Cretans* may therefore be called the subject of *were believed*, though it is not the entire subject. (276, 3; 461; 541, 5.)

RULES OF CONSTRUCTION

704. Rule 13. A finite verb agrees with its subject in person and number. (592.)

705. Special Rule 8. A finite verb having two or more subjects joined by "and," and differing in person, prefers the **first person** to the second, and the **second** to the third; as, "*You and I are censured.*" (*You and I = we.*) "*Francis, you and Joshua must go.*" (*You [s.] and Joshua = you [p.].*)

706. Special Rule 9. A finite verb having two or more subjects joined by "or" or "nor," agrees with the subject next the verb in **person and number**; as, "*You or Mary must go.*"

This construction should not be used if the subjects differ in person and the verb has a different form for each person. Thus, "*Either you or he is wrong,*" should be "*Either you are wrong, or he is.*" It is sometimes used when the subjects differ in number only; as, "*The king or his advisers were opposed* to that course; while neither the *prince nor his friends were prepared* to defend it.—*Hume.* In such sentences the plural subject is placed next the verb.

707. Special Rule 10. A finite verb having two or more subjects joined by "and" and not modified by "no," "each" "every," or a similar adjective, is in the **plural number** if they represent different persons or things; as, "*Anna and Rose are here.*"

708. Special Rule 11. A finite verb having two or more singular subjects representing the same person or thing, or modified by "no," "each," "every," or a similar adjective, is in the **singular number**; as, "*Yonder lives a statesman and soldier.*" *Every man, woman, and child was killed.*—*Burke.*

709. Rule 14. A non-finite verb does not change its form to agree with its subject in **person** and **number**. (593.)

EXERCISES

710. *Mention the subjects of the following verbs, and their person and number, when finite :*

1. Every man and woman stood motionless, watching the receding boat. 2. I see that thou art poor. 3. It were lost sorrow to wail one that's lost. — *Shak.* 4. Here comes my friend and teacher. 5. You or your friends must go at once, or he and I will go.

711. *Correct the following errors :*

1. His riches is great. 2. Where was you yesterday?
3. The news were good. 4. The summons were given.

"SHALL" AND "WILL"

712. When no determination is expressed, *shall* is used in the first person, and *will* in the second and third.

EXAMPLES. — "I think I *shall go.*" "Mary *will go.*" "We *shall go.*" (Simple futurity; no determination.)

EXCEPTION. — "Shall you go?" (Simple futurity.)

713. When a determination is expressed, *will* is used if the determination and the act refer to the same person, and *shall* if they refer to different persons.

EXAMPLES. — "I **WILL go.**" "He **WILL go.**" (He determines to go.)
"He **SHALL go.**" (I determine that he is to go.) "Shall they go?"

Did the foreigner mean what he said when he cried, "I will be drowned, and nobody shall help me"?

"SHOULD" AND "WOULD"

714. *Should* usually expresses duty or obligation, and *would* determination or inclination. When used otherwise, *should* is generally in the first person, and *would* in the second or third.

EXAMPLES. — "Children *should obey* their parents." (Duty.) "He *would go*, and no one could prevent him." (Determination.) "I *should like* to see him." "If he were to go, he *would be pleased*."

715. In conditional clauses, *should* is generally used; as, "If he *should go*, he would be pleased."

The rules stated in 712-715 have but few exceptions. Let these rules be committed to memory, and applied in sentences like the examples. (730, 731.)

Conjugation

716. **Conjugation** is a variation in the form of a verb to express *voice, mood, tense, person, and number*.

717. The **synopsis** of a verb shows what forms it has to express its grammatical properties in a single person and number. (719.)

718. CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "BE"

Principal Parts				
<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Pres. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Inf.</i>
Am,	was,	being,	been,	Be or to be.

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR NUMBER	PLURAL NUMBER
<i>First person</i> , (I) am,	1. (We) are,
<i>Second person</i> , (You) are, or (Thou) art,	2. (You) are,
<i>Third person</i> , (He) is;	3. (They) are.

Present Perfect Tense*Have*, combined with the perfect participle.

SINGULAR NUMBER

1. (I) have been,
2. (You) have been, *or* (Thou) hast been,
3. (He) has been, *or* (He) hath been ;

PLURAL NUMBER

1. (We) have been,
2. (You) have been,
3. (They) have been.

Past Tense

1. (I) was,
2. (You) were, *or* (Thou) wast,
3. (He) was ;

1. (We) were.
2. (You) were,
3. (They) were.

Past Perfect Tense*Had*, combined with the perfect participle.

1. (I) had been,
2. (You) had been, *or* (Thou) hadst been,
3. (He) had been ;

1. (We) had been,
2. (You) had been,
3. (They) had been.

Future Tense*Shall or will*, combined with the present infinitive.

Simple futurity ; foretelling. (712.)

1. (I) shall be,
2. (You) will be, *or* (Thou) wilt be,
3. (He) will be ;

1. (We) shall be,
2. (You) will be,
3. (They) will be.

Promise, threat, or determination. (713.)

1. (I) will be,
2. (You) shall be, *or* (Thou) shalt be,
3. (He) shall be ;

1. (We) will be,
2. (You) shall be,
3. (They) shall be.

Future Perfect Tense*Shall or will*, combined with the present infinitive *have* and the perfect participle

1. (I) shall have been,
2. (You) will have been, *or* (Thou) wilt have been,
3. (He) will have been ;

1. (We) shall have been,
2. (You) will have been,
3. (They) will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense	
SINGULAR NUMBER	PLURAL NUMBER
1. (If I) be,	1. (If we) be,
2. (If you) be, <i>or</i> (If thou) be,	2. (If you) be,
3. (If he) be ;	3. (If they) be.

Past Tense	
1. (If I) were,	1. (If we) were,
2. (If you) were, <i>or</i> (If thou) wert,	2. (If you) were,
3. (If he) were ;	3. (If they) were.

Past Perfect Tense

Had, combined with the perfect participle.

1. (If I) had been,	1. (If we) had been,
2. (If you) had been, <i>or</i> (If thou) had been,	2. (If you) had been,
3. (If he) had been ;	3. (If they) had been.

POTENTIAL MOOD

Present Tense

May, can, or must, combined with the present infinitive.

1. (I) may be,	1. (We) may be,
2. (You) may be, <i>or</i> (Thou) mayst be,	2. (You) may be,
3. (He) may be ;	3. (They) may be.

Ought is combined with the present infinitive, as follows :

1. (I) ought to be,	1. (We) ought to be,
2. (You) ought to be,	2. (You) ought to be,
3. (He) ought to be ;	3. (They) ought to be.

Present Perfect Tense

May, can, or must, combined with the present infinitive *have*
and the perfect participle.

1. (I) may have been,	1. (We) may have been,
2. (You) may have been, <i>or</i> (Thou) mayst have been,	2. (You) may have been,
3. (He) may have been ;	3. (They) may have been.

Past Tense

Might, could, would, or should, combined with the present infinitive.

SINGULAR NUMBER	PLURAL NUMBER
1. (I) might be,	1. (We) might be,
2. (You) might be, <i>or</i> (Thou) mightst be,	2. (You) might be,
3. (He) might be;	3. (They) might be.

Past Perfect Tense

Might, could, would, or should, combined with the present infinitive *have* and the perfect participle.

1. (I) might have been,	1. (We) might have been,
2. (You) might have been, <i>or</i> Thou mightst have been,	2. (You) might have been,
3. (He) might have been;	3. (They) might have been.

Ought is combined with the present infinitive *to have* and the perfect participle.

IMPERATIVE MOOD**Present Tense**

2. Be (you), <i>or</i> Do (you) be;	2. Be (you), <i>or</i> Do (you) be.
-------------------------------------	-------------------------------------

INFINITIVE MOOD**Present Tense**

(I, you, he, we, *or* they) to be *or* be.

Present Perfect Tense

(I, you, he, we, *or* they) to have been *or* have been.

Or we may say (*me, him, us, or them*) *to be, etc.*

PARTICIPIAL MOOD**Present Tense**

(I, you, he, we, *or* they) being.

Present Perfect Tense

(I, you, he, we, *or* they) having been.

To conjugate a verb in the *passive voice*, add the *perfect participle* of the verb to the conjugation of the verb *be* (616), thus :

SINGULAR NUMBER	PLURAL NUMBER
1. (I) am <i>seen</i> ,	1. (We) are <i>seen</i> ,
2. (You) are <i>seen</i> ,	2. (You) are <i>seen</i> ,
3. (He) is <i>seen</i> ;	3. (They) are <i>seen</i> , etc.

To conjugate a verb in the *progressive form* (697), add the *present participle* of the verb to the conjugation of the verb *be*, thus :

1. (I) am <i>seeing</i> ,	1. (We) are <i>seeing</i> ,
2. (You) are <i>seeing</i> ,	2. (You) are <i>seeing</i> ,
3. (He) is <i>seeing</i> ;	3. (They) are <i>seeing</i> , etc.

719. SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB "BE," WITH "THOU" AS ITS SUBJECT

INDICATIVE MOOD

<i>Present tense</i> ,	(Thou) art.
<i>Present perfect tense</i> ,	(Thou) hast been.
<i>Past tense</i> ,	(Thou) wast.
<i>Past perfect tense</i> ,	(Thou) hadst been.
<i>Future tense</i> ,	(Thou) shalt or wilt be.
<i>Future perfect tense</i> ,	(Thou) wilt have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

<i>Present tense</i> ,	(If thou) be.
<i>Past tense</i> ,	(If thou) wert.
<i>Past perfect tense</i> ,	(If thou) had been.

"If thou wert," and "If thou hadst been," are also sometimes used by good writers.

POTENTIAL MOOD

<i>Present tense</i> ,	(Thou) mayst, canst, or must be.
<i>Present perfect tense</i> ,	(Thou) mayst, canst, or must have been.
<i>Past tense</i> ,	(Thou) mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be.
<i>Past perfect tense</i> ,	(Thou) mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Present tense, Be (thou), or Do (thou) be.

INFINITIVE MOOD

Present tense, (Thou) to be, or (Thee) to be.

Present perfect tense, (Thou) to have been, or (Thee) to have been.

PARTICIPIAL MOOD

Present tense, (Thou) being.

Present perfect tense, (Thou) having been.

EXERCISE

720. Write a synopsis of "be," with "James" as its subject. With "they."

721. CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "SEE"

Principal Parts

<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Pres. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Inf.</i>
See,	saw,	seeing,	seen,	to see.

INDICATIVE MOOD

SINGULAR NUMBER	PLURAL NUMBER
1. (I) see,	1. (We) see,
2. (You) see,	2. (You) see,
3. (He) sees ;	3. (They) see.

Present Tense. — Emphatic Form

1. (I) do see,	1. (We) do see,
2. (You) do see,	2. (You) do see,
3. (He) does see ;	3. (They) do see.

Present Perfect Tense

1. (I) have seen,	1. (We) have seen,
2. (You) have seen,	2. (You) have seen,
3. (He) has seen ;	3. (They) have seen.

Past Tense.—Common Form

SINGULAR NUMBER	PLURAL NUMBER
1. (I) saw,	1. (We) saw,
2. (You) saw,	2. (You) saw,
3. (He) saw ;	3. (They) saw.

Past Tense.—Emphatic Form

1. (I) did see,	1. (We) did see,
2. (You) did see,	2. (You) did see,
3. (He) did see ;	3. (They) did see.

Past Perfect Tense

1. (I) had seen,	1. (We) had seen,
2. (You) had seen,	2. (You) had seen,
3. (He) had seen ;	3. (They) had seen.

Future Tense

Simple futurity ; foretelling. (712.)

1. (I) shall see,	1. (We) shall see,
2. (You) will see,	2. (You) will see,
3. (He) will see ;	3. (They) will see.

Promise, threat, or determination. (713.)

1. (I) will see,	1. (We) will see,
2. (You) shall see,	2. (You) shall see,
3. (He) shall see ;	3. (They) shall see.

Future Perfect Tense

1. (I) shall have seen,	1. (We) shall have seen,
2. (You) will have seen,	2. (You) will have seen,
3. (He) will have seen ;	3. (They) will have seen.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD**Present Tense**

1. (If I) see,	1. (If we) see,
2. (If you) see,	2. (If you) see,
3. (If he) see ;	3. (If they) see.

Present Tense.—Emphatic Form

SINGULAR NUMBER	PLURAL NUMBER
1. (If I) do see,	1. (If we) do see,
2. (If you) do see,	2. (If you) do see,
3. (If he) do see ;	3. (If they) do see.

Past Tense

1. (If I) saw,	1. (If we) saw,
2. (If you) saw,	2. (If you) saw,
3. (If he) saw ;	3. (If they) saw.

Past Tense.—Emphatic Form

1. (If I) did see,	1. (If we) did see,
2. (If you) did see,	2. (If you) did you,
3. (If he) did see ;	3. (If they) did see.

Past Perfect Tense

1. (If I) had seen,	1. (If we) had seen,
2. (If you) had seen,	2. (If you) had seen,
3. (If he) had seen ;	3. (If they) had seen.

POTENTIAL MOOD**Present Tense**

1. (I) may see,	1. (We) may see,
2. (You) may see,	2. (You) may see,
3. (He) may see ;	3. (They) may see.

Present Perfect Tense

1. (I) may have seen,	1. (We) may have seen,
2. (You) may have seen,	2. (You) may have seen,
3. (He) may have seen ;	3. (They) may have seen.

Past Tense

1. (I) might see,	1. (We) might see,
2. (You) might see,	2. (You) might see,
3. (He) might see ;	3. (They) might see.

Past Perfect Tense

1. (I) might have seen,	1. (We) might have seen,
2. (You) might have seen,	2. (You) might have seen,
3. (He) might have seen ;	3. (They) might have seen.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR NUMBER

2. See (you).

PLURAL NUMBER

2. See (you).

INFINITIVE MOOD

Present Tense

I (*or me*), you, he (*or him*), we (*or us*), they (*or them*) to see.

Present Perfect Tense

I (*or me*), you, he (*or him*), we (*or us*), they (*or them*) to have seen.

PARTICIPIAL MOOD

Present Tense

(I, you, he, we, *or they*) seeing.

Present Perfect Tense

(I, you, he, we, *or they*) having seen.

EXERCISES

722. Conjugate the verbs "be,"¹ "see," "love," "teach," "carry," and "row."

1. In conjugating a verb, it is not necessary to mention the subject. For example, in conjugating *be* in the indicative mood and present tense, you may say, "Singular number; first person, *am*; second person, *are* or *art*; third person, *is*," etc.

723. State the mood and tense of the following verbs, and then conjugate them throughout the tense:

I came. It may stop. Art thou? I shall try. They are coming. If she study. You must repent. We might have gone. He should have been studying. Had I gone. They were punished.

724. Write each of the following verbs in all the forms of the tense to which it belongs:

I study. They returned the book. It may rain. Has he brought the book? The bird is flying.

725. Write a synopsis of the following verbs, in each tense of all the moods:

Love, with *I* as its subject. *See*, with *Mary* as its subject. *Is transferred*, with *the trunk* as its subject. *Are coming*, with *we* as its subject.

726. Conjugate the verbs "strike," "love," and "teach," in the passive voice (718, note). The verbs "study," "row," and "sing," in the progressive form (718, note). The verb "go" interrogatively in the common form.

PARSING

727.

FORMS OF PARSING.—WRITTEN PARSING

I. They sin who tell us Love can die.—*Southey*.

rifv	itfv	rifv
ind	a	pot
pr	ind	pr
they	pr	Love
3	who	3
a	3	s
	p	

ORAL PARSING

Tell is an irregular, transitive, finite verb, in the active voice, indicative mood, and present tense. Its subject is *who*, hence it is in the third person and plural number.

WRITTEN PARSING

2. The enemy advancing, he ordered the signal to be given.

rinv	rtfv	itnv
par	a	p
pr	ind	inf
enemy	pa	pr
	he	signal
	3	
	s	

ORAL PARSING

Advancing is a regular, intransitive, non-finite verb, in the participial mood, and present tense. Its subject is *enemy*, but it does not change its form to agree with *enemy* in person and number.

To be given is an irregular, transitive, non-finite verb, in the passive voice, infinitive mood, and present tense. Its subject is *signal*, but it does not change its form to agree with *signal* in person and number.

EXERCISE

728. Parse the finite verbs in 603 and 651. The finite and non-finite verbs in 595 and 623.

LANGUAGE TABLES

729. Read the following tables aloud every day, until you become accustomed to hearing and using the correct forms. Add "it" when the verb is transitive.

I go	I run ¹	I write it	If we be, etc.
I went	I ring it	I drink	—
I have gone	I see it	—	If I were
I had gone	I speak	If I be	If you were
—	I eat it	If you be	If he were
I begin, ¹ etc.	I know it	If he be	If they were, etc.

1. Use *begin, run, etc.*, in the same tenses as *go*.

730. Read the following, without emphasizing the auxiliaries:

I shall go	We shall go	I shall begin ¹	I shall see it
You will go	You will go	I shall run ¹	I shall speak
He will go	They will go	I shall ring it	I shall eat it, etc.

1. Use *begin, run, etc.*, in the same persons and numbers as *shall go*.

731. Emphasize the auxiliaries :

I will go We will go I will begin¹ I will see it
 You shall go You shall go I will run¹ I will speak
 He shall go They shall go I will ring it I will eat it, etc.

1. Use *begin*, *run*, etc., in the same persons and numbers as *will go*. Select other verbs, if necessary.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

732. Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns, pronouns, and verbs in them :

1. Hallowed be¹ Thy name. 2. Yonder lives² a soldier and statesman. 3. Whom do you think them to be?
 4. Who are they³ thought to be? 5. You or I must go.⁴ 6. If love be rough with you, be rough with love. — *Shakspeare*.
 7. The saint, the father, and the husband prays. — *Burns*. 8. It is not easy for⁵ one to forgive his enemies. 9. This done, we left. 10. Was it snowing I spoke of? — *Holmes*. 11. Experience teaches that heavy bodies fall if they are unsupported.

12. Who⁶ doeth right deeds
 Is twice-born, and who doeth ill deeds vile. — *Arnold*.

13. It was during Mr. Fillmore's Administration that the Fugitive-slave Law was enacted. 14. Your deeds would make the statues of your ancestors blush upon their tombs. — *Longfellow*.
 15. No place, no company, and no person is temptation-free. — *Shakspeare*. 16. It is said that after Lycurgus had finished his code of laws, he went into voluntary exile. 17. Knowledge and timber should not be used until they are seasoned. — *Holmes*. 18. Zenobia would have ill deserved her reputation had she indolently

permitted the Emperor of the West to approach within a hundred leagues of her capital.—*Gibbon*. 19. Go ye, therefore, and teach all nations, baptizing them in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost. — *Matt. xxviii. 19.*

20. God pity them both, and pity us all,
Who vainly the dreams of youth recall. — *Whittier*.

1. 642. 2. Say, its subjects are *soldier* and *statesman*, nouns representing the same person, hence it is in the third person and singular number. (708.) 3. *They*, with *to be*, is the subject of *thought*. 4. 706. 5. A prep., used as a sub. conj. 6. 340 or 360, note. Or, *who* is a conjunctive pronoun, and the clause it introduces is the subject of *is*.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED

733. *Two of the following sentences are correct. Correct the errors in the others.*

1. We was there. 2. If I was him I would go. 3. You hadn't ought to go. 4. Lay down and rest. 5. Demos-thenes, as well as Cicero, were eloquent. 6. The charges isn't proven. 7. The streets is narrow in China. 8. The wages of sin is death. 9. Here's the scissors. 10. Who done it? 11. Has the bell rang? 12. I have often saw that. 13. She sets next him. 14. How is your father and mother? 15. I ought to have went. 16. Fetch me my knife. 17. I used to could do it. 18. He was heard say that the man hung himself. 19. How fine the oats is! 20. His text was "God was love." 21. Pharaoh with all his host were drowned. 22. Says I to myself, "He done it." 23. John will earn his wages when his work is finished. 24. It is me who is to go. 25. *Horses* are in the plural number. 26. Every kind of comfort and

convenience are provided. 27. A page and a half has been added. 28. Each day and each hour bring their portion of duty. 29. Ethics is the science of human rights and duties.

COMPOSITION. — PARAGRAPHS

734. Related thoughts are sometimes expressed by a number of sentences grouped together into what is called a **paragraph**. In a paragraph each sentence should express a thought not expressed in a preceding sentence, and the thought thus expressed should have some relation to the preceding thought.

A paragraph usually contains two or more sentences, but it may consist of a single sentence.

A composition should be divided into paragraphs, if it treats of different and disconnected things.

Of what does a paragraph consist? How many paragraphs are in the foregoing remarks? How many sentences are in the first paragraph? In the second? Of how many paragraphs does your history lesson consist? Where should we begin to write a new paragraph?

Turn to page 287, and read the composition there given on "The Hand." Of how many paragraphs does it consist? The subject of the first paragraph is the location of the hand. What is the subject of the second? The third? Does each paragraph have a subject? Does there seem to be a plan followed in the arrangement of the subjects of the paragraphs? What is the plan? Of how many sentences does each paragraph consist?

Examine the composition on "Australia" (p. 289) in the same way.

General Suggestions

735. The following suggestions should be followed in writing paragraphs :

1. See that a paragraph treats of a single topic.

While the subject of a sentence is always stated, the subject of a paragraph may or may not be definitely expressed in words. It may be stated plainly, or it may be suggested in the various statements made by the sentences comprising the paragraph. But in either case, the reader should be able to tell what the paragraph treats of, and its relation to the general subject of the composition.

2. See that each paragraph of a composition has some connection with the preceding paragraphs.

3. See that the paragraphs of a composition are arranged so that the topics will be presented in the proper order.

The proper order of presenting the topics of a composition will be stated with the directions for writing the composition.

EXERCISES

736. *Write paragraphs containing two or more sentences each, about —*

1. Carpenters. What tools do they use? What do they make?

2. Ice cream. Do you like it? Of what is it made? Where do we generally buy it?

3. Toothache. Is it painful? What causes it? Can it be cured? If so, how?

4. Lead pencils. Of what are they made? What are they used for? Could we do without them?

5. The last book you read. What is its title? By whom was it written? Is it interesting? Instructive?

Would you recommend children to read it? Why, or why not?

737. *Write paragraphs of the kind seen in the "local" or news columns of newspapers, using the following facts:*

1. White Elephant.

Steamer from Siam, with white elephant, arrived at Liverpool. Elephant to be taken to London Zoölogical Gardens. To Paris. To America.

The paragraph may be written as follows:

White Elephant. The steamer from Siam, with a white elephant on board, has arrived at Liverpool. The elephant is to be exhibited at the London Zoölogical Gardens, and afterward taken to Paris. It will be brought to America for exhibition.

2. House Burned.

Large dwelling house in Smithton burned last Thursday evening. Furniture burned. Cause of fire unknown. Loss, \$8000. Partly covered by insurance.

3. Lyceum.

Meeting to be held in Locust Grove schoolhouse next Saturday evening. A good programme. An interesting time. All come.

4. Poultry Show.

Fifth show of Lancaster County Poultry Society. Opened on Thursday in Post Office Hall. Will continue one week. Large exhibition. Fine specimens. Incubator in operation.

5. Child Lost.

A little girl, Mary Brown, aged five years, wandered away from home. Gone several hours. Parents in great distress. Large wood near house searched. Found at dusk on a pile of leaves asleep. Rejoicing.

738. *Write short paragraphs on the following subjects, first jotting down the facts in the manner indicated above:*

1. Barn burned.
2. Railroad accident.
3. Sleighing party.
4. Entertainment in — church.
5. Sale of property.
6. An accident that happened last week.
7. On the study of grammar.
8. What I should like to do next Saturday.
9. How to treat the aged.
10. Brain work *versus* hand work.

739. Write a paragraph on each of the following topics, or subjects :

1. Getting ready for a picnic.
2. Going to a picnic.
3. Games played at a picnic.
4. Lunch at a picnic.
5. Returning from a picnic.

ADJECTIVES

740. An **adjective** is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun without representing an object.

741. Words from other parts of speech are frequently used as adjectives ; as, "An *iron* post." "A *gold* ring." "*California* gold." "Washington's *farewell* address." "*County* offices." "A great *many* men." See, also, 221, 236, and 253.

742. In a compound adjective consisting of a numeral and a noun, the noun retains its singular form ; as, "A *ten-foot* pole." "A *twofold* use."

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES

743. Read —

1. Old men walk slowly.
2. That book is mine.
3. Do you see those beautiful flowers?
4. Three little boys.
5. Large ripe apples.
6. Some money.

What word modifies the noun "men," in the first sentence? Does it describe the men? What adjective modifies the noun "book," in the second sentence? Does "that" tell what kind of book is referred to? Does it describe the book? In the third sentence, which word modifies the noun "flowers" by describing the flowers? Which word modifies the noun without describing the flowers? What is the difference between "three" and "little"? Which one is descriptive? Which one merely defines or limits?

744. Adjectives are divided into two chief classes: *descriptive adjectives* and *definitive adjectives*.

745. A **descriptive adjective** is an adjective that modifies a noun or a pronoun by describing the person or thing represented by it; as, "Greenland's *icy* mountains." "Her hands are *cold*." "Those *heavy* yards were swung by fifty *strong* arms."

In "the *morning* sun," "a *party* measure," *morning* and *party* may be classed as descriptive adjectives.

746. A **definitive adjective** is an adjective that modifies a noun or a pronoun without describing the person or thing represented by it; as, "*An* old man." "*No* one." "*Those* heavy yards were swung by *fifty* strong arms." "*The* others have gone."

747. Descriptive adjectives include, as a small part of their number —

1. **Proper adjectives**, or adjectives derived from proper nouns; as, "The *American* flag." "*French* literature." "The *Elizabethan* age." (322.)

In this class may be included proper nouns used as adjectives; as, "*New York* elections." "*A Florida* orange." "*The State Legislature Tax* measures."

2. **Participial adjectives**, or participles used wholly as descriptive adjectives; as, "*Twinkling* stars." "*Forgotten* joys."

Adjectives formed by prefixing *un* to participial adjectives are called participial adjectives by some grammarians; as, Be Yarrow's stream *unseen*, *unknown*. — *Wordsworth*. "An *unforgiving* disposition." "*Unforgotten* joys."

748. Definite adjectives include, as a large part of their number —

1. **Pronominal adjectives**, or words that are used as definitive adjectives, and may be used as pronouns; as, "*This* hearth is our own." "*Both* men were hurt." (372.)

2. **Numeral adjectives**, or adjectives that express number; as, *one* book; the *first* man; a *double* team.

Some numeral adjectives are compound words; as, *twenty-five* years; *one hundred and sixty-eight* dollars.

One, *two*, *ten*, etc., are called cardinal numerals; and *first*, *second*, *tenth*, etc., ordinal numerals. What is a cardinal numeral adjective? An ordinal numeral adjective?

3. **Interrogative adjectives**, or adjectives used to ask questions; as, "*Which* one shall I bring?" "*What* implements are needed?"

4. **Conjunctive adjectives**, or adjectives used to introduce clauses and join them to the words that the clauses modify; as, "Ascertain *which* book he wishes." "I cannot see *what* flowers are at my feet." (248.)

749. The interrogative adjectives are *which* and *what*. The conjunctive adjectives are *which* and *what*, with

their compounds *whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*.

The adjective *what* is sometimes used in exclamation, and it may then be called an *exclamatory definite adjective*; as, "What a boy!" "What wonders do I see!"

"The" and "A" or "An"

750. *The* is derived from the adjective *sē* (AS. *sē*, *seb*, *ðæt*, later *the*, *theo*, *that*). *An* is derived from *ān*, meaning one. *A* is a later form of *ān*. These adjectives differ somewhat in use from the ordinary definitive adjectives.

The and *a* or *an* are called, by many grammarians, articles. *The* is called the definite article, and *a* or *an* is called the indefinite article. Abbott says of the term *article*: "A name . . . foolishly introduced into English, and once used to denote *the* and *a*."

751. The adjective *the* is used to show that a particular object or class of objects is referred to; as, "The man has gone." "The horse is a noble animal."

"The man." A particular man, thought of apart from the class *men*. "The horse." A particular class, thought of apart from other classes.

752. *The* may be used before singular and plural nouns; as, "The man." "The men." "The Atlantic." "The Joneses." "The Cicero of his age." (325.)

In such constructions as "The steamer Fulton went up the Hudson River," *the* modifies the common noun. When the common noun is omitted, as in "The Fulton went up the Hudson," *the* modifies the proper noun. *The* is frequently used before the names of rivers to distinguish them from states; as, "The Mississippi." To what does the name "Delaware" refer? "The Delaware"? "Colorado"? "The Colorado"?

753. The adjective *a* or *an* is used to show that no particular object or class of objects is referred to; as, "A man." "An old house." "A second Daniel." "A Napoleon of finance." What kind of noun is *Daniel*? *Napoleon*? Why? (325.)

"A man" denotes one of a class, not thought of apart from the class.

754. *A* should be used when the next word begins with a consonant sound, and *an* when it begins with a vowel sound; as, "A man." "A union." "A blind old man." "An art." "An hour." "An old man." Which is correct, "A humble home" or "An humble home"?

755. *An* is also frequently used before *h* faintly sounded, when the second syllable has the chief accent; as, "An heroic deed." "An hexameter."

Some critics condemn this use of *an* as un-American, preferring "A heroic deed," "A hexameter." Both "a hexameter" and "an hexameter" are correct.

756. *A* or *an* is used before nouns in the singular number only; as, "A man." "An ox."

Expressions like "A dozen apples," "A hundred men," are no exception to this rule. In "A dozen apples," *dozen* is a noun used as an adjective. As a noun, it is modified by *a*; and as an adjective, it modifies *apples*. So, also, "A hundred men," etc. In "A few hours," "A great many persons," *few* and *many* are pronouns used as adjectives. As a pronoun, *many* is modified by *a* and *great*, adjectives. As an adjective, it modifies *persons*.

Or, *hundred* and *dozen* are nouns, and the nouns following them are in apposition with them. In AS. they were followed by the genitive case, as if we said, "A hundred of men," etc. (Cf. "A score of men.") So also the pronouns *few* and *many*.

757. *A* or *an* should not be repeated before the second term of a comparison when both terms refer to the same person or thing; as, "He is a better scholar than teacher."

758. *The* or *a* or *an* should be used only once before two or more adjectives modifying the same noun, and repeated before each of two or more adjectives modifying different nouns; as, "A red, white, and blue flag" (one flag). "An arbitrary and conventional language" (one language). "A red, a white, and a blue flag" (three flags).

759. *The* and *a* or *an* are usually omitted —

1. Before common nouns referring to the kind generally, or to a part indefinitely; as, "Platinum is heavier than gold." "Man is mortal." "Goodness is better than wealth." "Ostriches have wings."
2. Before a word used merely as a title; as, "He received the title of captain."

3. Before a word used merely as a word ; as, "*Truly* is an adverb." "*Acorn* is from *ac*, oak, and *corn*, grain."

For the use of *a* as a preposition, see 930.

760. Other Definitive Adjectives

All is opposed to *none* and to *some*. It denotes either number or quantity. "*All* men." "*All* the world."

Both, two.

Certain, a small select number. (*Certain*, meaning *sure*, is a descriptive adjective.)

Divers, many different.

Each, two or more considered separately.

Else, besides. "Somebody else."

Every, all considered separately.

Few is opposed to *many* ; *a few*, to *none*.

Little, not much. (*Little*, meaning *small*, is a des. adj.)

Many a, many considered separately.

Own, possession with emphasis.

Sundry, more than one or two.

Very, the same emphatically.

What, interrogative, conjunctive, or exclamatory.

Which, interrogative or conjunctive.

Yon, yonder, at a distance, within view. *Yon* is obsolete, except in poetry.

Compound and Derivative Adjectives

COMPOUND ADJECTIVES

761. The principal classes of *compound adjectives* are the following :

1. An adjective preceded by a noun which modifies it adverbially ; as, *sky blue*, *homesick*, *knee-high*, *water-tight*, *hopeful*.

The adjective in these compounds is frequently a participle ; as, *bed-ridden*, *heartbroken*.

2. A noun preceded by an adjective ; as, *barefoot, ten-dollar, manifold*.

Frequently *ed* is added ; as, *black haired, old-fashioned, red-cheeked*.

3. An adjective preceded by an adverb ; as, *upright, everlasting, outspoken, inborn*.

4. An adjective preceded by an adjective which modifies it adverbially ; as, *newborn, fresh-looking*.

5. A present participle preceded by its object ; as, *heart-rending, talebearing*.

DERIVATIVE ADJECTIVES

762. The principal classes of *derivative adjectives* are the following :

1. Adjectives derived by the use of prefixes from other adjectives ; as, *unwise, incompetent, impious, supernatural*.

Principal prefixes : *un, im, um*, etc. (= not).

2. Adjectives derived by the use of suffixes : (1) from nouns, as *homely, golden, changeable, left-handed* ; (2) from verbs, as *loving, loved, lovable* ; (3) from other adjectives, as *deadly, blackish, loveliest*.

Principal suffixes : *ly* (= like), *ed, en* (participial suffixes), *ish* (diminutive), *less* (AS. *leas*, without), *er, est* (used in comparison).

EXERCISES

763. *Which of the following adjectives are descriptive, and which definitive? Which are pronominal? Which numeral? Which may be used as interrogative adjectives? Which as conjunctive adjectives?*

Two, ugly, those, no, the, beautiful, rising, soft, own, a, third, lovely, each, an, which, twenty-ninth, deep, better,

much, former, true, what, sundry, all, learned, single, whole.

764. *Form adjectives from the following words :*

Adjectives: kind, faithful, truthful, like, active, worthy, abundant, ordinary, national, qualified, blue, clean, white, sick, pure.

Nouns: wood, brute, nation, America, France, maiden, home, good-nature, child, telegraph.

Verbs: change, try, trot, swim, debate.

765. *Correct the following errors :*

1. An union; a old man; an hundred men; such an one. 2. A heir; an hair. 3. A white and a black pig was lost. 4. A white and black pig were lost. 5. The first and second sentence; the first and the second sentences; the Old and New Testament. 6. What kind of a book is that? 7. Is a woman a man's equal? 8. Tennyson received the title of a lord. 9. His abilities are so great that a few excel him. 10. The truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again.

Comparison

766. *Read—*

1. Mr. Smith is strong. 2. Mr. Brown is stronger than Mr. Smith. 3. Mr. Jones is the strongest of the three. 4. A good boy; a more beautiful girl; the best actions. 5. Old, older, oldest. Cheerful, more cheerful, most cheerful. 6. Wise, less wise, least wise. Cheerful, less cheerful, least cheerful.

What quality of the three men is compared? Which man is said to possess the quality of strength in a higher

degree than Mr. Smith? Which possesses it in the highest degree?

767. **Comparison** is a variation in the use and form of an adjective (or an adverb) to express quality in different degrees; as, If fun is *good*, truth is *better*, and love *best* of all. — *Thackeray*.

768. There are three degrees of comparison: the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative*.

769. An adjective used to express the quality simply, is in the **positive degree**; as, *happy* children; *agreeable* companions; *few* pleasures. "The day is *cold*."

770. An adjective used to express the quality in a higher or a lower degree, is in the **comparative degree**; as, *happier* children; *less happy* children; *more agreeable* companions; *less agreeable* companions; *fewer* pleasures. "The night is *colder* than the day."

771. The comparative degree should be used when *two* objects or conditions are compared; as, "Rhode Island is *smaller* than Delaware." "A nation is *happier* in peace than in war." "Texas is *larger* than any other State in the Union." (Texas is compared with one State after another.)

This rule (771) is not strictly adhered to. One frequently hears "the best of two," "the least of two."

772. When the comparative degree is followed by *than*, the word *other* should be placed before the second term to exclude the object represented by the first term, if it

belongs to the class named by the second term; as, "*Socrates* was wiser than the *other Athenians*."

But we may say, "Mexico is larger than any State in the Union." "Was Aristotle wiser than Plato?"

773. An adjective used to express the quality in the highest or the lowest degree, is in the **superlative degree**; as, the *happiest* children; the *least happy* children; the *most agreeable* companions; the *least agreeable* companions; the *fewest* pleasures. "Winter is the *coldest* season of the year."

774. The superlative degree should be used when *three or more* objects or conditions are compared; as, "Rhode Island is the *smallest* state in the Union." "A nation is *happiest* in peace."

775. In using the superlative degree, the object represented by the first term should be included in the class named by the second term; as, "*Socrates* was the wisest of the *Athenians*."

776. Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided. Thus, "The *most unkindest* act of all," "The *most boldest*," should be, "The *unkindest* act of all," "The *boldest*," etc.

The double comparative *lesser* is sometimes used; as, "The *lesser* evil." Double comparatives and superlatives are common in older English; as, The *most unkindest* cut of all. — *Shak.* "The *most straitest* sect," etc.

777. An adjective expressing a quality that cannot exist in different degrees, should not be compared. Among adjectives of this class are —

Almighty	Empty	Four-footed	Naked	Royal
Certain	Equal	Full	One	Second
Chief	External	Golden	Two	Straight
Circular	Extreme	Hollow	Paternal	Sincere
Continual	False	Honest	Perfect	Supreme
Dead	Filial	Infinite	Perpetual	Universal
Deaf	Fluid	Living	Right	Void

Some of the foregoing adjectives are compared when they are not taken in their full sense; as, Our sight is the *most perfect* of all our senses.—*Addison*. The *most perfect* society.—*Emerson*. An *emptier* name.—*Goldsmith*. The *extremest* verge.—*Shakspeare*. A *fuller* style.—*Whitney*.

778. A few participial adjectives are compared; as, “The *most learned* man.” “The *most dazzling* sight.” So also *exciting*, *thrilling*, *interesting*, etc.

779. The positive is sometimes diminished by suffixing *ish*, or using *somewhat*, *rather*, *slightly*, etc.; as, red, *reddish*; *rather* old. It is sometimes greatly increased by using *very*, *exceedingly*, etc.; as, *very* black; *exceedingly* cold.

RULES FOR EXPRESSING COMPARISON

780. The *comparative degree* is regularly formed by adding *er* to the positive, or placing *more* or *less* before it; as, *wiser*; *more* beautiful; *less* droll.

The denoting of the comparison of adjectives, that is, the formation of the comparative and the superlative, happens in two modes, the one answering to the AS., the other to the Romance mode. The one is effected through derivational terminations, the other by the combination of the adverbs *more* and *most* with the positive.—*Matzner*.

781. The *superlative degree* is regularly formed by adding *est* to the positive, or placing *most* or *least* before it; as, *wisest*; *most* beautiful; *least* droll.

More, most, less, and least, when used in comparing adjectives or adverbs, should be regarded as parts of the words with which they are used. (312, 3.) In "a most dazzling sight," *most* is an adverb, meaning *very*, or *exceedingly*.

782. *Er* and *est* are added to monosyllables, and words of two syllables ending with *le*, *ow*, or *y*, or accented on the second syllable; as, wise, *wiser*, *wisest*; noble, *nobler*, *noblest*; narrow, *narrower*, *narrowest*; merry, *merrier*, *merriest*; polite, *politer*, *politest*.

And also *common*, *handsome*, *sober*, *tender*, etc.

783. *More* and *most* are placed before other adjectives; as, vicious, *more* vicious, *most* vicious; interesting, *more* interesting, *most* interesting. (312, 3.)

Er and *est*, and *more* and *most* are used to compare adjectives *above the positive*.

784. If an adjective compared by suffixing *er* and *est* is used with one compared by using *more* and *most*, both adjectives should be separately compared, or the smaller adjective should be placed first, and both be compared by one word, *more* or *most*; as, "The *wisest* and *most advantageous* course." "The *more nice* and *elegant parts*."

785. *Less* and *least* are placed before adjectives to compare them *below the positive*; as, wise, *less* wise, *least* wise; important, *less* important, *least* important.

786. *Compound adjectives* that admit of comparison are compared by changing the descriptive word; as, "*long-headed*, *longer-headed*, *longest-headed*;" "*good-natured*, *better-natured*, *best-natured*."

While it is advisable for the student to follow the foregoing rules in the comparison of adjectives, there are many exceptions to them to be found in literature.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON

787. The following adjectives are compared *irregularly*:

Pos.	Comp.	Sup.	Pos.	Comp.	Sup.		
Bad	worse ¹	worst	Near	nearer	{ nearest next		
Evil			farther ²	farthest	—	nether ⁷	nethermost
Ill					former	{ foremost first	Old
Far	further ²	furthest	(Out)	{ outer utter			{ outmost outermost utmost uttermost
Fore					hinder	{ hindmost hindmost	
(Forth) ⁸	better ⁴	best	—	under ⁷			undermost
Good					inner	{ inmost innermost	
Hind	later ⁵	{ latest last	(Up)	upper			{ upmost uppermost
—					less ⁶	least	
Late	Latter ⁵	last	Much	more			most

1. *Worse* and *worst* are the comparative and superlative of the AS. *weor* (=bad).
 2. *Farther* = more distant; *further* = additional. 3. The words in parentheses are adverbs. 4. *Better* and *best* are the comparative and superlative of the AS. *bet* (=good). *Good* has no comparative of its own. 5. *Later* and *latest* are opposed to *earlier* and *earliest*; *latter* and *last*, to *former* and *first*. *Latter* and *last* are older than *later* and *latest*. *Elder* and *eldest* are older than *older* and *oldest*. 6. *Lesser* is sometimes used for *less*. Generally, it should not be used. 7. Some irregular adjectives have no positive. 8. *Older* and *oldest* apply to persons and things; *elder* and *eldest*, to persons only. *Older*, not *elder*, precedes *than*. 9. Some irregular adjectives have no comparative.

788. The following adjectives imply comparison, but are not compared: *inferior*, *superior*, *junior*, *senior*, *major*, *minor*, *interior*, *exterior*, *anterior*, *posterior*, *prior*, *superior*.

These words come to us directly from the Latin, in which they are comparatives.

EXERCISES

789. Compare all of the following adjectives that can be compared. Compare the first ten below the positive.

Ill, noble, wise, studious, sick, ample, sublime, square, profound, indulgent, exact, triangular, tough, ill-mannered, round, preferable, thick, Christian, ancient, rural, final, joyful, full, fundamental, green, evil, high, hot, remote, near, droll, sprightly, dry, good-natured, distant, idle, industrious, lazy, successful, ornamental, useful, oily, gentle, polite, spiteful.

790. Correct the errors in the following sentences :

1. Draw a straighter line. 2. She is the tallest of the two. 3. The Bible is more valuable than any book. 4. Eve was the loveliest of her daughters. 5. He was the tallest of all the other boys. 6. That is the most universal opinion of the two. 7. This is more reddish than that. 8. Gladstone is the wisest statesman of his associates. 9. Is not this more superior? 10. A more old-fashioned man I have not saw this five years.

Number of "This" and "That"

Read —

This book is mine. These books are yours. That horse. Those horses.

791. The **number** of an adjective is a variation in its form to agree with the number of the noun that it modifies.

792. Two adjectives, *this* (plural *these*) and *that* (plural *those*), have number.

POSITION OF ADJECTIVES

793. An **adjective** is generally placed before the noun that it modifies; as, *Some pious drops the closing eye* requires. — *Gray*.

For the position of *predicate adjectives*, see 518–520.

794. Adjectives that express *number* generally precede adjectives that express *quality*, and follow other adjectives; as, “*One little girl.*” “*Those two old men.*”

795. If two or more adjectives are of *unequal rank*, the one expressing the most obvious or most permanent quality modifies the noun most closely and is placed nearest to it; as, “*Large red apples.*” “*The unclouded arching sky.*”

796. If two adjectives are of *equal rank*, the longer word is placed last; and they are joined by *and* or separated by a comma; as, “*A sober, industrious man.*” “*A sober and industrious man.*”

797. Adjectives that express quality are sometimes transposed —

1. When they themselves are modified; as, “*One perfectly upright.*” “*A man sound in all his members.*” “*A well twenty-five feet deep.*”

2. When several adjectives modify the same noun; as, “*A man, wise, learned, and good.*”

3. To add strength or beauty to a sentence; as, “*Great is Diana.*” (462, 5; 519, 4.)

798. *Else* follows the noun or the pronoun that it modifies; as, “*Somebody else.*” “*Who else?*”

799. *Whatever, whatsoever*, etc., sometimes follow the words that they modify; as, There is no *doubt whatever*. — *Dickens*.

EXERCISES

800. *Change the transposed words to their natural position, and explain the effect of the change:*

1. A man, old and tired, came to the door. 2. Bright flashed his saber keen. 3. How beautiful is the rain! — *Longfellow*. 4. Untremulous is the river clear. — *Lowell*. 5. Great and manifold were the blessings, most dread Sovereign!

801. *Transpose the italicized words, and explain the effect of the transposition:*

1. The *conflict* was *fierce*. 2. *We* are *happy* to-night. 3. *Diana* of the Ephesians is *great*. 4. *Pure* were her thoughts, and true. 5. The doubtful *empire* of the night is *short*.

RULES OF CONSTRUCTION

802. Rule 15. An *adjective* is used to modify a noun or a pronoun. (192, etc.)

803. Special Rule 12. An *adjective* is sometimes used absolutely, as the complement of a verbal. (198.)

Rule 12 and Special Rule 7 apply also to adjectives used as subordinate conjunctives. (248, 537, 748.)

PARSING

804.

FORMS OF PARSING.—WRITTEN PARSING

1. *This* bridge — *what interesting* associations cluster about it!

p def a	def a	p des a
s	asso	p
bridge		asso

ORAL PARSING

This is a pronominal definitive adjective, in the singular number. It is used to modify *bridge*.

What is a definitive adjective. It is used to modify *associations*.

Interesting is a participial descriptive adjective, in the positive degree. It is used to modify *associations*.

WRITTEN PARSING

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|-------|-------|-------|------------|
| <p>2. <i>The</i> board was planed <u><i>smooth</i></u>.</p> <p style="margin-left: 2em;">def a
board</p> | <p>3. He planed <u><i>the</i></u> board <u><i>smooth</i></u>.</p> <table style="margin-left: 2em; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">def a</td> <td style="text-align: center;">des a</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">board</td> <td style="text-align: center;">p
board</td> </tr> </table> | def a | des a | board | p
board |
| def a | des a | | | | |
| board | p
board | | | | |

ORAL PARSING

Smooth is a descriptive adjective, in the positive degree. It is used in predication with *board*, to modify it.

Smooth is a descriptive adjective, in the positive degree. It is used in predication with *board*, to modify it.

The first "smooth" is a *s. p. a.* (193); the second is an *o. p. a.* (200).

WRITTEN PARSING

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>4. Do we realize <u><i>what</i></u> labor it requires to become <u><i>learned?</i></u></p> <p style="margin-left: 2em;">c def a
labor
in cl
do realize</p> | <p style="margin-left: 2em;">p des a
p
to become</p> |
|---|--|

ORAL PARSING

What is a conjunctive definitive adjective. It is used to modify *labor*. It is also used to introduce the clause *what labor it requires*, etc., and join it to *realize*.

Learned is a participial descriptive adjective, in the positive degree. It is used absolutely as the complement of *to become*.

EXERCISE

805. Parse the adjectives in the following sentences :

1. Every natural action is graceful. 2. The twinkling stars shine above the wave-tossed and rock-bound coast.

3. The Spanish troops captured twenty cannon at Seville.
 4. Why call ye me good? 5. Why do you desire to call me good? 6. The great Chinese wall is twelve hundred and fifty miles long. 7. Many a one dies young.
 8. Hearken, lords and ladies gay! 9. It is wrong to be deceitful. 10. Keep whatever company is of most benefit to you.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

806. Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns, pronouns, verbs, and adjectives in them :

1. The weather held fine. — *Howells*. 2. He lived unknown. — *Wordsworth*. 3. I will not leave you comfortless. — *John xiv. 18*. 4. How beautiful they stand! — *Mrs. Hemans*. 5. They heard of my¹ being ill. 6. Strive to become more frugal and industrious² each year. 7. Do the locusts come every³ seventeen years? 8. It is wrong to be wrong. 9. I know not what course others may take. 10. Columbus had no thought of becoming disheartened. 11. What strange chance has made him worthy⁴ of all this praise? 12. To be wise is more creditable than to be called wise. 13. Is the farm worth⁵ a thousand⁶ dollars?⁷ 14. Forgive every one⁸ his brother their trespasses. — *See Matt. xviii. 35*. 15. Which⁹ route the French troops will take is unknown. 16. Whichever¹⁰ way I turn,
 The same sad sights I see.
17. How bright and joyous is the brooklet's melody! how careless and happy the song it ever sings as its silvery waters dance along o'er its pebbly bed! 18. Six times his gossamery web the wary spider threw. — *Barton*. 19. Without,¹¹ all are in misery¹²; within, all are gay.

20. Long ago¹⁸ people believed the earth to be flat, but there are several ways by which we know that its surface is curved. — *Nat. Adv. Geography.*

21. Who has not dreamed a world of bliss
On a bright sunny morn like this! — *Mrs. Howitt.*

1. 474. 2. Supply *more*. 3. *Every* modifies *seventeen years*. 4. What must be supplied? 5. 193. 6. *Thousand* is a noun used as an adjective (*n. adj.*). As a noun, it is modified by *a*; as an adjective, it modifies *dollars*. Or, *a thousand* may be construed as an adjective. 7. 497. 8. 508, 2. 9. Say, it introduces the clause, *which route the French troops will take*. 10. 749. What verb does the clause modify? 11. Adv., mod. *are*. 12. Phrase used as a *s. p. a.* 13. 1031.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED

807. *Correct the following errors. (One of the sentences is correct.)*

1. Give me them books. 2. Take the smaller of the three. 3. The rose is the beautifulest flower. 4. Send me either one of the three. 5. These sort of persons¹ are not admired. 6. I like those kind of apples. 7. What kind of an² apple is it? 8. What for a³ book have you? 9. There is another and better world. 10. Which is the largest, the minuend or the subtrahend? 11. I have a dull sort of a⁴ headache. 12. Argus had an hundred eyes. 13. The one half of six is three. 14. This is more correct than that. 15. My friend W—— is taller than any one of my acquaintances. 16. England had not such another king. 17. The four last parts of speech. 18. The nine first chapters of Proverbs. 19. The gravel snow covered long walk. 20. An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, adjective, or another adverb.

1. Persons of this sort. 2. 759. 3. A German idiom (*was für ein*). 4. Omit *sort of a*.

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METHODS

...

...

... the incoming

... said to my brother and
... course we did: and after
... creek, about half a mile

... net. A dip net, as many
... to a long pole by four
... are driven over it, and it
... and the fish causes the net to
... cannot swim off.

We soon reached the creek. Father found a good place for his net, and sent Frank up the stream to chase the fish down by stirring in the water with a long pole, while I went down and threw little clods into the water as I walked slowly along toward the net. In a little while, father called out, "Stop, Joshua!— Quietly, Frank!" and raised his net. How surprised we were to see that he had a large number of fish in it! When he got them to shore, Frank and I counted them and found that he had caught sixteen.

After fishing at this place a few minutes longer, we went down the stream, stopping at several other places. In an hour or so, we had caught eighty-five large fish. We then started for home, well pleased with what we had done.

EXERCISE

810. *The following subjects for narratives are suggested:*

1. Landing of the Pilgrims.

On September 6, 1620, one hundred and two pilgrims sailed from England for America. Name of vessel, *Mayflower*. Voyage long and perilous. Sixty-three days on the ocean. Intended to land at the mouth of the Hudson. Tempest. Out of course. First land seen, Cape Cod.

Difficulty in landing. Boat half rotten and useless. Repaired. A party of sixteen landed.

December 6. Weather dreadful. Wandered about all day. Next morning, attacked by Indians. Escaped to ship.

Vessel was steered south and west along coast. Rudder wrenched away by storm. Found a safe harbor. On December 11, O. S., landing effected. Pilgrim Fathers on Plymouth Rock.

2. A Picnic.

When and where held. Who were invited. Getting ready. The trip there. What was done. Home again.

3. A day at school. 4. How I spent last Saturday.
5. My last pleasure excursion. 6. Discovery of America.
7. Battle of Bunker Hill. 8. Death of Lincoln. 9. A

trip to the north pole. 10. A trip to the moon. 11. A day with a fairy. 12. The story of the Prodigal Son (Luke xv. 11-32). 13. David and Goliath (1 Samuel xvii. 38-51). 14. The sale of Joseph into Egypt (Gen. xxxvii. 12-36). 15. Elijah and the prophets of Baal (1 Kings xviii. 17-40).

ADVERBS

811. An **adverb** is a word used to modify a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or another adverb, without representing an object.

Adverbs are also used to modify other parts of speech.

812. Words from other parts of speech sometimes become adverbs; as, "*Smack* went the whip" (*v.*). "*Red* hot" (*adj.*). "*Wide* open" (*adj.*). See, also, 223, 238, and 255.

813. By the omission of a verb of motion, some adverbs have come to be used as verbs; as, I'll *hence* to London. — *Shak.* I'll *in*. — *Ib.* *Down*, soothless insulter! — *Campbell.*

In sentences like the foregoing, a verb may probably be supplied ("I'll *go* hence"), but in the following sentences the insertion of the verb would weaken if not alter the expression: *Away* with him! — *Acts* *xxi.* 36. She *up* with her fist. — *Sydney.* So also *up* with it, *down* with it, *in* with it, *out* with it, *over* with it, *under* with it, etc., in which *up*, *down*, *in*, *out*, *over*, *under*, etc., should be parsed as verbs.

Probably the best way to dispose of *up* [in "She *up* with her fist," etc.] is to call it an intransitive, defective verb. — *W. D. Henkle.*

814. *Much*, *little*, *well*, *ill*, *no*, *only*, *still*, *first*, *last*, *fast*, *hard*, *like*, *near*, etc., may be used either as adjectives or as adverbs.

When *like* is used as an adjective or an adverb, two persons or things are compared. If the comparison is made through an action done by the first, *like* is an adverb; if not so made, it is an adjective. In both cases it is followed by an indirect object; as, The albatross fell off, and sank *like* lead into the sea. — Coleridge (*adv.*). The trumpet's blast, *like* the thunder of God, makes our hearts beat fast. — Brooks *tr.* (*adj.*). "They fought *like* brave men" (*adv.*). "They seemed *like* brave men" (*adj.*). Since *like* is followed by the objective case, and not the nominative, it cannot be used as a conjunctive adverb.

815. The phrases *at last*, *at random*, *in general*, *in short*, etc., may be called *phrase adverbs* (*ph. adv.*), and may thus be distinguished from phrases used as adverbs, in which the preposition and its object are construed separately. *As it were* is sometimes used as a *clause adverb*.

Little by little, *one by one*, *by and by*, etc., may also be called phrase adverbs.

816. In using adverbs, care must be taken to *select appropriate words*. Remember that —

1. An *adverb* should be used to describe an act; an *adjective* to describe an object.

EXAMPLES. — "I *arrived safely*" (= My arrival was a safe one). "I *arrived safe*" (= I was safe when I arrived). "The *lime burns white*." "Sugar *tastes sweet*." "The *sun shines bright*." "The sun *shines brightly*." "The blind man looks (*sharp* or *sharply*?)." "The *child was called tender*." "The *child was called tenderly*." How do the last two sentences differ?

When *be* or *become* can be used instead of the verb, the modifying word should be an adjective.

2. *No* should not be used instead of *not*.

"Will you go, or no?" should be "*or not?*"

3. But one negative word should be used to express denial.

"I do *not* want *nothing*" should be "I do *not* want anything," or "I want nothing."

4. When affirmation is intended, *not* is correctly used with words beginning with *dis-*, *in-*, *un-*, etc.; as, "He is not dissatisfied." "They are not unconcerned."

5. In affirmative sentences, *as* and *as* may be used; in negative, *so* and *as*; as, "I am *as* tall *as* he." "She is not *so* old *as* Jane."

6. The preposition *from* should not be used before *hence* (= from this place), *thence*, and *whence*.

7. *When* should not be used to join clauses to nouns not expressing time; *where*, to nouns not expressing place.

R. "The hour when he will arrive is not known." "I have forgotten the date when he came." "O'er the grave where our hero we buried." "The fittest place where man can die," etc. So, also, *the moment when*, *the time when*, *the spot where*, *a position where*, etc.

W. "The family where he stayed received him cordially." "A partnership where several partners are unknown," etc. Why are these sentences incorrect?

8. We should not use *illy*, *that there*, *this here*, *as for so*, *good for well*, *how* or *how that* for *that*, *like* for *as*, 'most for *almost*, *near* for *nearly*, *that* for *so*, 'way for *away*, *such a* (adj.) (noun) for *so* (adj.) *a* (noun).

9. Exaggerations and repetitions should be avoided.

EXERCISE

817. Correct the errors in the following sentences:

1. Speak prompt and loud. 2. This is no good. 3. I am terribly glad to see you. 4. It is colored brightly. 5. I don't know nothing about him. 6. He was most killed. 7. She is not as old as me. 8. How slow the

moon is rising! 9. The paper where he saw it in is torn.
10. Such a delightfully lovely day we have never had for a long time.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS

818. Read—

1. She came quietly. 2. Go there. 3. He will return here soon. 4. Now, slowly, then, there, hence, even, only, very.

What word modifies the verb "come"? How did she come? Does "quietly" show the manner of her coming? Where am I to go? Does the adverb "there" denote place? What does "here" denote? "Soon"? "Slowly"?

819. Adverbs may be divided into the following classes :

1. **Adverbs of manner** ; as, *so, well, as, ill, like, how, thus, somehow, aloud, together*, etc.

Adverbs of manner answer the question *How?* They generally modify verbs. To this class some authors add *modal adverbs*, or adverbs that modify propositions, by showing how the statement is made or regarded ; as, "*Truly*, this was the Son of God." "*Verily, verily*, I say unto you." Most modal adverbs can be disposed of as modifying the *asserting word*, or *verb*.

Adverbs of *affirmation, negation, and doubt* are sometimes classed as adverbs of manner.

2. **Adverbs of place** ; as, *here, there, whence, hither, above, somewhere, back, off, up, forth*, etc.

Adverbs of place answer the question *Where? Whither? or Whence?*

3. **Adverbs of time** ; as, *now, always, then, already, early, seldom, daily, sometimes, till, since, henceforth*, etc.

Adverbs of time answer the question *When? How long? or How often?*

Once, twice, thrice, denote time. *First, secondly, thirdly*, etc., denote either place or time. (*Firstly* should not be used.)

The nouns *to-day, to-morrow, to-night*, and *yesterday* are generally called adverbs of time.

4. **Adverbs of degree**; as, *much, less, too, as, so, fully, quite, how, infinitely, all*, etc.

Adverbs of degree answer the question, *In what degree? or How much?* They generally modify adjectives or adverbs.

5. **Adverbs of cause**; as, *why, therefore, accordingly, hence, consequently*, etc.

Adverbs of cause answer the question *Why?*

6. **Adverbs of affirmation and negation**; as, *verily, certainly, truly, not, no*, etc.

7. **Adverbs of doubt**; as, *perhaps, perchance, probably*, etc.

8. **Adverbs of addition**; as, *besides, still*, etc.

9. **Adverbs of emphasis**; as, *only, too, but, even, also, both, either, neither*, etc. (204.)

Adverbs of emphasis are used to render other words more emphatic. They may modify nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, verbals, phrases, clauses, or sentences. In "I, too, am sick," *I* is emphasized, and hence modified. In "I am sick, too," *sick* is made emphatic. In "I am too sick," *too* is an adverb of degree. In "Both winds and waves sweep it," *both* modifies *winds* and *waves*. *Neither* modifies *just* and *kind* in "It was neither just nor kind." *Both* and *neither* in such constructions are usually called conjunctions. (966, note 2.)

10. **The adverb of position, there**; as, "There was no one here." (206.)

Phrases and clauses used as adverbs may express manner, place, time, degree, cause, etc. The idea expressed by a phrase or a clause is generally indicated by the word that introduces it. (916, note 2; 820, 2; 955.)

820. To the foregoing classes may be added —

1. **Interrogative adverbs**, or adverbs used to ask questions. The words that may be thus used are *how, where, whither, whence, when, and why*; as, “*How can I go?*” “*Whence come the clouds?*”

2. **Conjunctive adverbs**, or adverbs used to introduce clauses, and join them to the words that the clauses modify. The words that may be thus used are *how, where, whither, whence, when, why, as, before, after, till, until, however, wherever, whenever, while, since, ere, and the* (p. 324); as, “I saw *how* a pencil is made.” O’er the grave *where* our hero we buried. — *Wolfe*. “The tree lies *where* it fell.” (248.)

See “Conjunctive adverbs,” p. 317.

The words *directly* and *immediately* are frequently used as conjunctive adverbs in England, but rarely in America; as, The work was suppressed *directly* it appeared. — *Buckle*. Do not imitate this construction.

EXERCISE

821. *Mention five adverbs of manner not given above; five of place; five of time; three of degree; two of cause. Mention five adverbs expressing quality. To what class do these adverbs belong? Mention three adverbs expressing direction; three expressing affirmation.*

Compound and Derivative Adverbs

COMPOUND ADVERBS

822. The principal class of *compound adverbs* is the following:

An adverb combined with a preposition; as, *indeed, beforehand, perhaps.*

823. The adverbs *here*, *there*, and *where* are combined with a number of prepositions; as, *herein*, *hereof*, *thereby*, *therein*, *wherewith*, *whereby*, etc.

Other words are sometimes combined to form compound adverbs; as, *sometimes*, *almost*, *midway*.

DERIVATIVE ADVERBS

824. The principal classes of *derivative adverbs* are the following:

1. Adverbs formed by the use of prefixes from nouns and adjectives; as, *ahead*, *along*, *beside*.

2. Adverbs formed by the use of suffixes (1) from adjectives; as, *slowly*, *ably*; (2) from other adverbs; as, *downward*.

EXERCISE

825. *Form adverbs from the following words:*

Adjectives: right, new, hasty, wise, quick, beautiful, respectable, frantic, perfect, former, broad, far, possible, second, fourth.

Nouns: thirst, loft, times, day, way, deed.

Adverbs: after, back, up, down, in.

Comparison

826. *Read—*

Albert will come soon. George will come sooner. Early, earlier, earliest. Wisely, more wisely, less wisely; most wisely, least wisely.

827. *Comparison* is a property of adverbs as well as of adjectives. (767.)

Not so many adverbs as adjectives can be compared.

828. Adverbs are regularly compared *above the positive* by the use of *er* and *est*, or *more* and *most*. *More* and *most* are generally used; as, *soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest; beautifully, more beautifully, most beautifully*. (780, etc.)

The comparison with *more* and *most* is as old with adverbs as with adjectives. — *Matsner*.

829. Adverbs are regularly compared *below the positive* by the use of *less* and *least*; as, *wisely, less wisely, least wisely; foolishly, less foolishly, least foolishly*. (785.)

830. A few adverbs are *irregularly* compared:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>	<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
Badly or ill	worse	worst	Much	more	most
Far	farther ¹	farthest	Well	better	best
Forth	further ¹	furthest	—	rather	—
Little	less	least			

1. *Further* is applied to space; *further*, to quantity. (787, n. 2.)

EXERCISE

831. Compare the following adverbs:

Often, industriously, freely, late, ill, long, frequently, fast, neatly, easily.

Position of Adverbs

832. Adverbs should be so placed in a sentence as to show clearly what words they modify.

For the placing of adverbs, no definite general rule can be given, yet there is no other part of speech so liable to be misplaced. — *Goold Brown*.

833. When a verb or a verbal consists of but one word, the adverb modifying it generally follows it. When it is transitive, the adverb generally follows its direct object.

When it consists of more than one word, the adverb generally follows the auxiliary or the principal word.

EXAMPLES.—“Come *again*.” “Take her *up* tenderly.” “We shall *never* see her *again*.”

Adverbs are frequently placed at the beginning of sentences; as, “*Thus* they provoked him.”

834. *There*, when used as an adverb of position, generally precedes the subject and predicate; as, *There is a reaper* whose name is Death.—*Longfellow*.

835. An adverb should never be placed between *to* and the rest of the verb or verbal.

836. Adverbs modifying *adjectives* and *adverbs* are generally placed before them. Illustrate.

The adverb *enough* is placed after the adjective that it modifies, and the adjective generally follows the substantive; as, “A building *large enough*.”

837. **Adverbs of emphasis** are generally placed before the words, phrases, or clauses that they modify; as, “*Only* a boy.” “*Even* from out thy slime.” “*Even* as a miser counts his gold,” etc.

838. Great care must be taken to place adverbs of emphasis properly, and especially the adverb *only*.

The word requiring most attention is *only*. According to the position of *only*, the very same words may be made to express several very different meanings. (1.) “He *only* lived for their sakes.” Here *only* must be held as qualifying “*lived* for their sakes,” the emphasis being on *lived*, the word immediately adjoining. The meaning, then, is, “he *lived*,” but did not *work*, did not *die*, did not do any other thing for their sakes. (2.) “He lived *only* for their sakes.” *Only* now qualifies “for their sakes,” and the sentence means he lived for their sakes, and not for any other reason. (3.) “He lived for their sakes *only*.” The force of the word when placed at the end is peculiar. It has then a diminutive or disparaging signification. “He lived for their sakes,” and not for any more worthy reason. “He gave sixpence *only*,” is an insinuation that more was expected.—*Bain*.

EXERCISES

839. *Arrange the words in their natural order:*

1. Heavily falls the rain. 2. Fast stealeth he on.
3. Now give it me. 4. He slowly went away. 5. Now
came still evening on. — *Milton.*

840. *Omit "there":*

1. There was no one here. 2. There were twenty men
killed. 3. God said, Let there be light: and there was light.

841. *Arrange properly:*

1. She only paid five cents. 2. Columbus discovered
America when? 3. Some virtues are only seen in adver-
sity. 4. I have thought of marrying often. 5. I desire
to sometimes see her.

RULES OF CONSTRUCTION

842. Rule 16. An *adverb* is used to modify a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or another adverb. (202.)

843. Special Rule 13. An *adverb* is sometimes used to modify a noun, a pronoun, a phrase, a clause, or a sentence. (203, etc.)

844. Special Rule 14. The adverb **there** is sometimes used simply to change the relative position of the subject and predicate of a sentence or a clause. (206.)

845. Special Rule 15. An *adverb* is sometimes used independently; as, "Well, what is it?"

"Adverbs used independently" may be called *interjections*, and *Special Rule 15* may be omitted.

Rule 12 and *Special Rule 7* apply also to adverbs used as subordinate conjunctives. (248, 537, 820, 2.)

PARSING

846.

FORMS OF PARSING.— WRITTEN PARSING

1. *Even* philosophers can *not* endure the toothache *patiently*.
- | | | |
|------|--------|------------|
| a em | a neg | a m |
| phil | can en | p |
| | | can endure |

ORAL PARSING

Even is an adverb of emphasis. It is used to modify *philosophers*.

Patiently is an adverb of manner, in the positive degree. It is used to modify *can endure*.

WRITTEN PARSING

2. *There* is a land *where* the rainbow *never* fades.
- | | | |
|--------|-------|-------|
| a p | c a p | a t |
| l & is | fades | fades |
| | in cl | |
| | land | |

ORAL PARSING

There is an adverb of position. It is used to change the relative position of *land* and *is*.

Where is a conjunctive adverb of place. It is used to modify *fades*. It is also used to introduce the clause *where the rainbow never fades*, and join it to *land*.

EXERCISE

847. Parse the adverbs in the following sentences:

1. I do not know why there are no frogs in Ireland.
2. Why did not Pharaoh permit the children of Israel to depart peaceably?
3. We very well know how necessary water is to vegetable life.
4. Some species of plants are almost wholly alike in their structure, and differ only in the shape or proportion of their parts.
5. Human food seems to be the only produce of land which always and necessarily affords some rent to the landlord. — *Adam Smith*.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

848. Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in them:

1. Mica is often wrongly called isinglass. 2. Well,¹ what did he say then? 3. How sad they look! 4. Only a woman knows a woman's needs. 5. Ordinary glass is made by melting together quartz and soda. — *Dana*. 6. I went there yesterday mainly for the purpose of seeing you again. 7. Where art thou, beloved To-morrow? — *Shelley*.

8. Trade hardly deems the busy day begun,
Till his keen eye along the sheet has run. — *Sprague*.

9. Even virtue is more fair when² it appears in a beautiful person. — *Virgil*. 10. When last seen,³ he was in his boat, rowing idly about, just below the falls. 11. We should do good whenever and wherever we can. 12. The⁴ deeper the well, the⁵ cooler the water. 13. How an acorn becomes an oak, is a mystery. 14. Why it is as⁶ it is, is unknown.

15. Even as a miser counts his gold,
Those hours the ancient timepiece told. — *Longfellow*.

1. 845 or 985. 2. The clause modifies *is*. 3. Supply *he was*. 4. *The* is a conjunctive adverb of degree; it modifies *deeper*. It joins the clause *the deeper the well to cooler*. (By what degree the well is deeper, to that degree the water is cooler.) 5. *The* is an adverb of degree; it modifies *cooler*. 6. 820, 2, and 819, 1.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED

849. Correct the following errors. (One of the sentences is correct.)

1. How are you? Tolerable well. 2. I only paid five dollars. 3. From whence came the storm? 4. It's not

right, I don't think. 5. Everybody works nearly. 6. I most fell. 7. He is awful kind. 8. The pupils were told not to talk. 9. He went that far yesterday. 10. Do not do like he did. 11. Pupils who take exercise frequently recite well. 12. He enjoys miserable poor health. 13. He don't go nowhere. 14. A diphthong is where two vowels are sounded together. 15. There is two cases: firstly, where the terms are alike; and, secondly, where they are unlike. 16. I have only did six problems. 17. That there book is hisen. 18. Whether it can be proven or no, is not the thing. 19. The meaning of the paragraph is not expressed as clear as it should. 20. It is very rarely that one has such a good chance.

DIARIES AND JOURNALS

850. In keeping a *diary*, record from day to day—

1. The events that interest you.
2. Whatever you desire to remember.

Make these records in *simple language*. Let them be truthful. If you have nothing to record on any particular day, let the space for the day be blank.

851. A Schoolboy's Diary

Monday, Jan. 28.—Clear and cold. Good sleighing. Recited Latin this morning to Dr. Wiseacre, Professor Quick being ill. Received a letter from home. All are well. Bought a pair of shoes, \$4.75.

Tuesday, Jan. 29.—Snowing all day. I wish I could be at home to take a sleigh ride. Knew all my lessons. Mr. Lively lectured this evening in the chapel on "The North Pole Expeditions." What hardships the Arctic explorers endured! I must read "The Trip of the Jeannette." Weighed myself. Weight 119 lbs.

Wednesday, Jan. 30.—Cloudy; not so cold. Snow beginning to melt. There was a frightful runaway this afternoon. Two horses, hitched to a sleigh with four children in it, were frightened by a passing train, and ran down Main Street at full speed. The sleigh was upset and the children were thrown into a snow bank. No one was seriously hurt. How fortunate! Failed in arithmetic — I can't understand compound proportion.

852. A Leaf from the Journal of Columbus

Wednesday, Oct. 10, 1492.—The weather is delightful and the sea is smooth. Flocks of small birds of various colors come flying about the ships. Tunny fish play in the smooth sea, and the air is as sweet and fragrant as April breezes in Seville. But no land is in sight, and the crew this evening broke forth into turbulent clamor. They insisted on turning homeward and abandoning the voyage as useless. I endeavored to pacify them by gentle words and promises of large rewards; but, as they only increased in clamor, I assumed a decided tone, and told them it was useless to murmur, that I would persevere until, by the blessing of God, I should accomplish my purpose. But I heard threats of mutiny, and the men are growing more and more desperate.

Thursday, Oct. 11.—Bright hopes at last! The Pinta fished up a cane, a log of wood, a carved staff, and a board; and the Nina sighted a stake covered with dog-roses. With these all the crew breathed freely, and were glad. All gloom and mutiny now gave way to eager expectation. Every one is on the lookout. In the evening, after singing the vesper hymn, I addressed the crew. . . .

10.30 P.M.—Half an hour ago, I saw a light gleaming in the distance — a certain sign of land. . . .

EXERCISE

853. *The following subjects for diaries are suggested:*

1. A diary, kept by the pupil for a week. 2. My little brother's diary. 3. The diary of a farmer. 4. The journal of a physician. 5. A hermit's diary. 6. A tramp's diary. 7. A leaf from George Washington's journal.

8. Scrooge's diary, for two days before and two days after Christmas (Dickens's "Christmas Carols"). 9. Henry Hudson's journal, as found in a bottle picked up in Hudson Bay. 10. Joseph's diary, kept while his brothers visited him (Gen. xliii., xliv., xlv.).

VERBALS

854. A **verbal** is a word that is derived from a verb and partakes of its nature, and is used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

See "Verbals," p. 325.

CLASSES OF VERBALS

Regular and Irregular Verbals

855. *Read*—

1. Sing, to sing, singing. 2. Walk, to have walked, having walked. 3. Try, having tried. 4. Study, to study.

Is "sing" a regular verb? Is "to sing" regular? "Singing"? "Walk"? "Having walked"?

856. Verbals, like verbs, are divided according to their form into *regular verbals* and *irregular verbals*.

857. A **regular verbal** is a verbal derived from a regular verb; as, *to walk, walking; to have studied, having studied*. (583.)

858. An **irregular verbal** is a verbal derived from an irregular verb; as, *to fly, flying; to have gone, having gone*. (584.)

EXERCISE

859. Which of the following verbals are regular, and which irregular?

To ring, running, seeing, having sawed, shown, acquired, to prove, having gone, to climb, to have learned.

Definite and Indefinite Verbals

860. Read the following sentences:

1. The workman desires to be employed. 2. His hands refuse to labor. 3. Minerals containing silica are called silicates. 4. To reign is worth ambition. 5. Ordinary glass is made by melting together quartz sand and soda.

Name the verbals in the foregoing sentences. Who desires to be employed? What refuse to labor? Does "to labor" express action? As expressing action, what noun does it refer to? What does "refer" mean? As an action word, to what noun does "containing" refer? What contain silica? Does "to reign" refer to a preceding noun or pronoun? In the fifth sentence, does any word denote who does the act of melting? Does "melting" refer to a preceding noun or pronoun?

861. Verbals, classed with reference to preceding nouns and pronouns, may be divided into *definite verbals* and *indefinite verbals*.

862. A **definite verbal** is a verbal that refers to a preceding noun or pronoun.

EXAMPLES.— "Sandstone is a *rock made* of sand." Ere *man* learned *to hew* the shaft, etc.— *Bryant*. The *Son* of man is come *to seek* and *to save* that which was lost.— *Luke xix. 10*. Slow rises

worth by poverty depressed.—*Johnson*. All men desire to be immortal.—*Parker*. “To save him from being defeated by the caucus nominee, will require great effort.” “I cannot help being an admirer of beauty.” We at length ended our distressful voyage by arriving at Naples, after having escaped a thousand dangers.—*Goldsmith*. After the period of pure Anglo-Saxon, there was written an irregular dialect called Semi-Saxon.—*March*.

863. A verbal that refers to a noun or a pronoun generally follows it; as, “I want to be an angel.”

864. An **indefinite verbal** is a verbal that is used without reference to a preceding noun or pronoun.

EXAMPLES.—*To err* is human; *to forgive*, divine.—*Pope*. *To be* or not *to be*, that is the question.—*Shak*. *To spend* too much time in studies is sloth.—*Bacon*. *To be* a poet is *to be* a man.—*Lamb*. The surest way not *to fail* is to determine *to succeed*.—*Spectator*. *Reading* without purpose is sauntering.—*Bulwer*. “*To save* him from being defeated by the caucus nominee, will require great effort.” “The folly of *becoming* a politician is often seen.”

EXERCISE

865. In the following sentences, point out four definite and three indefinite verbals.

1. We should try to do right. 2. It is cowardly to tell a lie. 3. I assured him he would have to encounter a winged dragon, compared to which the largest of those in the French romances was but a dragon fly.—*Scott*. 4. Is trying to become a scholar difficult? 5. I came not here to talk.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbals

866. Read the following sentences:

1. Minerals containing silica are called silicates. 2. I desire to begin promptly.

Has "containing" a direct object? Has "to begin" a direct object? What part of speech is "containing"? "To begin"?

867. Verbals, like verbs, are divided according to their use as related to objects, into *transitive verbals* and *intransitive verbals*.

868. A **transitive verbal** is a verbal that has a direct object; as, *To resist evil* by evil is evil. — *Mohammed*. "His success in *promoting learning*," etc. (598.)

869. An **intransitive verbal** is a verbal that does not have a direct object; as, "*To read well* is an accomplishment." "He escaped punishment by *running away*." (599.)

870. Verbals, like verbs, may be transitive in one sentence and intransitive in another; as, "He desires *to study grammar*" (tr.). "He desires *to study*" (intr.). (600.)

871. Some transitive verbals are followed by two objects, a *direct* and an *indirect object*; as, "He tried *to tell me* (indir.) the *story*" (dir.). "By *bringing me* the *book*," etc. (602.)

EXERCISE

872. *Which of the following verbals are transitive, and which intransitive?*

1. The atrocious crime of being a young man I shall not attempt to palliate nor to deny. 2. You taught me first to beg. 3. His own history, after leaving France, was brief and melancholy. — *Scott*. 4. I began to perceive that it would be no light matter to break it up. 5. Being asked why he came, he replied, "To speak with the king."

PROPERTIES OF VERBALS

873. The properties of verbals are *voice, form, and tense*.

Voice

874. *Read the following sentences :*

1. The infantry were deployed to protect the batteries.
2. The batteries required to be protected.
3. Minerals containing silica are called silicates.
4. Sandstone is a rock made of sand.
5. To be employed is to be happy.
6. To save him from being defeated, etc.

Point out the verbals in the foregoing sentences. To what preceding noun does "to protect" refer? From what verb is it derived? In "The infantry protect the batteries," is "protect" transitive or intransitive? In what voice is it? In what voice may "to protect" be considered to be? To what preceding noun does "to be protected" refer? From what verb is it derived? In "The batteries are protected," is "are protected" transitive or intransitive? In what voice is it? In what voice may "to be protected" be considered to be? In "Minerals contain silica," in what voice is "contain"? In what voice is "containing," in the third sentence? From what verb is "to be employed" derived? In "He is employed," in what voice is "is employed"? In what voice may "to be employed" be said to be? In "We save him," in what voice is "save"? In what voice is "to save"?

875. Transitive verbals, like transitive verbs, have two voices: the *active* and the *passive*.

876. A transitive verbal derived from a transitive verb in the active voice, is in the **active voice**.

EXAMPLES.—“He tried *to scale* the heights.” (He *scaled* the heights.) “The captain saved the ship by *throwing* the cargo overboard.” (The captain *threw* the cargo overboard.) (613.)

877. A transitive verbal derived from a transitive verb in the passive voice, is in the **passive voice**.

EXAMPLES.—“The men desire *to be employed*.” (The men *are employed*.) “*To be employed* is to be happy.” “Wealth *acquired* dishonestly often proves a curse.” “*Being called* a thief is,” etc. (614.)

878. When a transitive verbal in the active voice refers to a preceding noun or pronoun, it shows that the word to which it refers represents the actor; as, “The *troops crossing* the river were attacked.”

879. In the passive voice, the verbal shows that the noun or pronoun to which it refers represents the receiver of the act; as, “The *troops attacked* by the enemy were crossing the river.”

880. The *passive voice form* of a verbal consists of the perfect participle, or of the infinitive or participle of the verb *to be* combined with a perfect participle; as, the soldiers *wounded*, etc., *to be wounded*, *to have been wounded*, *being wounded*, *having been wounded*.

EXERCISE

881. *In what voice are the following verbals?*

1. Is it necessary to inflict corporal punishment for the purpose of maintaining good order?
2. After having silenced the guns, they attempted to storm the fort.
3. Do not wait to be asked.
4. I can easier teach twenty

what were good to be done, than be one of the twenty to follow mine own teaching. — *Shak.*

5. My master is of churlish disposition,
And little recks to find the way to heaven
By doing deeds of hospitality. — *Shak.*

Form

882. *Read the following sentences :*

1. The men came to learn it. 2. To have learned the art will be a pleasure. 3. The men learning the work are Germans. 4. After having learned it, they will be employed. 5. After delaying the train, etc. 6. To be reproved is the consequence of meddling.

Which words in the foregoing sentences are verbals? What are the principal parts of the verb "learn"? "Delay"? "Reprove"? Is "to learn" an infinitive? What is "to have learned"? Is "learning" a participle? What is "having learned"? "Delaying"? "To be reproved"?

883. Verbals have two forms: the *infinitive* and the *participial*.

These forms correspond to the forms of the infinitive and the participial mood of the verbs from which they are derived. (581.)

884. A verbal in the **infinitive form** consists of an infinitive or an infinitive and a participle; as, *To be employed* is *to be* happy. — *Gray.* The air 'gins *to thicken*. — *Beaumont and Fletcher.* (581, 645, 646.)

885. A verbal in the **participial form** consists of one or more participles; as, We at length ended our distressful voyage by *arriving* at Naples, after *having escaped* a thousand dangers. — *Goldsmith.* (581.)

EXERCISE

886. *In what form are the verbals in 872 and 881?*

Tense

887. *Read the following sentences:*

1. James tries to study the lesson. 2. To have studied the lesson will be a satisfaction. 3. By studying diligently you will succeed. 4. The lesson studied is difficult. 5. After having studied his lesson, he walked to the river.

Point out the verbals in the foregoing sentences. Which are in the infinitive form? Which are in the participial form? Does "to study" refer to the same time as "tries"? Does "to have studied" represent the act as completed at the time referred to? What time is represented by "to study"? By "studied"? By "having studied"?

888. Verbals, like the verbs from which they are derived, have **tense**. (654.)

889. The infinitive form has two tenses: the *present* and the *present perfect*. The participial form has three tenses: the *present*, the *present perfect*, and the *past*.

890. A verbal in the **present tense** generally represents an act or state as present at the time referred to; as, "I desire *to go*." "The bird *flying* is a robin."

891. A verbal in the **present perfect tense** generally represents an act or state as completed at the time referred to; as, "*To have succeeded* in the work is creditable." "After *having climbed* the tree, they pelted us with stones."

892. A verbal in the **past tense** generally represents an act or state as completed at the time referred to; as, "The army *surrendered* by Cornwallis numbered seven thousand men." (673.)

893. Words expressing *desire, command, expectation*, etc., have a reference to the future, which prevents them from being followed by the *perfect infinitive*; as, "I hoped *to go*;" not "I hoped *to have gone*."

894. THE TENSES IN THE TWO FORMS

		Active Voice		
		<i>Present</i>	<i>Present Perfect</i>	<i>Past</i>
INFINITIVE FORM:	{	To see	to have seen	—
		To go	to have gone	—
		To study	to have studied	—
PARTICIPIAL FORM:	{	Seeing	having seen	—
		Going	having gone	—
		Studying	having studied	—
		Passive Voice		
		<i>Present</i>	<i>Present Perfect</i>	<i>Past</i>
INFINITIVE FORM:	{	To be seen	to have been seen	—
		To be studied	to have been studied	—
PARTICIPIAL FORM:	{	Being seen	having been seen	saw
		Being studied	having been studied	studied

Why is "go" not used in the passive voice? Which tense is always in the passive voice? What is the sign of the present perfect tense? How may the present participle always be recognized?

EXERCISE

895. Write a table like the foregoing with "love." "Try." "Rise." "Catch," in the passive voice. "Love," in the passive voice.

USES OF VERBALS

896. *Verbals* are sometimes used as *nouns* in the neuter gender, third person, singular number, and nominative or objective case. (219; p. 322.)

897. A participial noun generally requires *the* before it and *of* after it. A participle used as a noun requires that both words be omitted; as, "By *the reading of* good books," etc. "By *reading* good books," etc.

In some sentences there is a difference in sense; as, "He lost his grain by the burning of his barn." "He lost his grain by burning his barn." How do these sentences differ?

898. The infinitive verbal is generally used in connection with verbs; the participial verbal is generally used after prepositions; as, "I *desire to go*." "You will oblige me *by remaining*."

But we may say, "He *tried walking*." "None knew thee *but to love thee*."

See "Gerund," p. 319, "Infinitives," p. 320, "Participles," p. 322.

899. A verbal used as a noun takes the place of the noun; as, "He desired *to go*."

900. *Verbals used as adjectives* may modify nouns and pronouns, and be the complements of verbs and verbals; as, "The spy *captured yesterday is to be shot*." (221.)

901. *Verbals used as adverbs* may modify verbs, verbals, adjectives, and adverbs. (223.)

902. The conjunction *and* and a finite verb should not be used instead of a verbal with *to*; as, "Come *to see*

me;" not "Come *and see* me." "Try *to come*;" not "Try *and come*."

903. A verbal used as an adjective or an adverb generally follows the word that it modifies; as, "Wealth *acquired* honestly," etc. "I came *to see* you."

904. *Verbals* are sometimes used without any grammatical relation to other parts of the sentence; as, "Talking of beauty, have you seen Miss A.?"

That the participle *talking* is used independently, may be seen by examining the following sentence: "While we are talking of beauty, let me ask, have you seen Miss A.?" The two clauses modify *ask*, but are independent of each other.

SPECIAL RULE

905. Special Rule 16. A *verbal* is sometimes used independently.

This rule may be dispensed with by supplying the omitted words.

EXERCISE

906. *How are the following verbals used?*

1. The climate of England is not remarkable for knowing its own mind. — *Horace Smith*. 2. Marley was dead, to begin with. 3. Returning to the question, how many believe his statement to be true? 4. Being urged to be on his guard, he armed himself before going forward to examine the route. 5. To try to prove the truth of a theorem by using the theorem, is called begging the question.

6. O, it is excellent
To have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous
To use it like a giant. — *Shak.*

PARSING

907.

FORMS OF PARSING. — WRITTEN PARSING

1. It is folly
- to think
- of
- assisting
- them in
- capturing
- the fort.

<u>ii</u> vl	<u>rt</u> ivl	<u>rt</u> dvl
inf	a	them
pr	par	a
n	pr	par
it	n	pr
n	of	n
	o	in
		o

ORAL PARSING

Assisting is a regular, transitive, indefinite verbal, in the active voice, participial form, and present tense. It is used as a noun, and is the object of *of*, hence it is in the objective case.

Capturing is a regular, transitive, definite verbal, referring to *them*. It is in the active voice, etc.

WRITTEN PARSING

2. The substance sometimes
- used
- to adulterate
- molasses is glycerine.

<u>rt</u> dvl	<u>rt</u> dvl
sub	sub
p	a
par	inf
pa	pr
adj	adv
sub	used

ORAL PARSING

Used is a regular, transitive, definite verbal, referring to *substance*. It is in the passive voice, participial form, and past tense. It is used as an adjective, to modify *substance*.

To adulterate. It is used as an adverb, to modify *used*.

EXERCISE

908. Parse the verbals in 865, 881, and 906.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

909. Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and verbals in them :

1. Washington was a man to be admired. 2. Doing right¹ is obeying² God's law. 3. Time wasted is existence; used, is life. — *Young*. 4. The word *geology* is from two Greek words signifying the story of the earth. — *Dana*. 5. "Ah!" cried the streamlet, "this is a heavenly light sent to tell me what I wish to know, and to guide me on my course." 6. A man's first care should be to avoid the reproaches of his own heart; his second, to escape the censures of the world. — *Spectator*. 7. Speaking³ of hard work, did you ever swing a scythe?

8. Learn that to love is the one way to know
Or⁴ God or man. — *Jean Ingelow*.

9. One peculiarity of living things is their power of transforming matter into new forms, and thereby making products never produced in any other way. — *Gray*.

10. The best education in the world is that got by struggling to get a living. — *Wendell Phillips*. 11. To write a good love letter, you ought to begin⁵ without knowing what you mean to say, and to finish⁵ without knowing what you have written. — *Rousseau*. 12. The superintendent believes it to be cheaper to train men to do the work required at the mills than to pay strangers for doing it. 13. The way to gain a good reputation is to endeavor to be what you desire to appear. — *Socrates*.

14. A vile conceit in pompous words expressed,
Is like a clown in royal purple dressed. — *Pope*.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED

910. *Correct the following errors. (One of the sentences is correct.)*

1. The house tops were covered, looking at Jumbo.
 2. I hoped to have seen you before. 3. I don't speak as correct as I used to. 4. I intended to have written yesterday. 5. By the exercising our memory, it is improved. 6. Feeling assured of your support, your presence is expected. 7. She was persuaded for to go. 8. I have not saw him, and I do not wish to. 9. Having taught the pupils the elements of the subject orally, they are ready to study a text-book. 10. Artaxerxes could not refuse pardoning him. 11. Do not try and do too much. 12. You need not wait for me. 13. He expected to immediately return. 14. They were not able, as individuals, to have influenced the twentieth part of the population. 15. Refuse to bow before shadows and worship phrases.

BIOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL SKETCHES

911. In writing *biographical* and *historical sketches* —

1. State events in the order of their occurrence.
2. State important and interesting circumstances only.

912. The following steps may be taken in writing a *biographical sketch* :

1. The material may be collected, as follows :

Bryant — distinguished poet and journalist — born 1794, in Mass. — wrote "The Embargo," a political poem, at 13 — "Thanatopsis" at 18 — began the practice of law in 1815 — moved to N. Y. in 1825 — became editor of *Evening Post* in 1826 — first edition of poems

published in 1832 — visited Europe several times — wrote “Letters of a Traveler” — translated the “Iliad” and the “Odyssey” began “U. S. History” — several editions of his poems published — died 1878.

2. The sketch may be written from the foregoing items, as follows :

BRYANT

William Cullen Bryant, a distinguished poet and journalist, was born in Massachusetts in 1794. At the early age of thirteen he wrote a political poem, entitled “The Embargo,” and at eighteen he composed “Thanatopsis,” the best known and probably the best of all his poems. He began the practice of law in 1815. In 1825 he moved to New York, and became editor of the *Evening Post* the following year. The first edition of his poems was published in 1832. He visited Europe several times, and published his observations in “Letters of a Traveler.” He translated the “Iliad” and the “Odyssey,” and afterward began a “History of the United States.” Several editions of his poems were published during his life. After a long and honorable career, Bryant died in 1878.

913. A *historical sketch* may be written in the same way.

1. Collect the material :

Martha’s Vineyard — an island 20 m. long and from 3 to 9 m. wide — southeast of Mass. — discovered in 1602 by Bartholomew Gosnold — named by him — then valuable for its sassafras — exported to Europe as a medicine — Thomas Mayhew became Governor in 1641 — settled where Edgartown now is — interested in missionary work — in 1835 the island was first used for camp meeting purposes — large gathering, yearly — a popular summer resort — near Gay Head, a promontory, a remnant of a tribe of Indians may be found.

2. Write the sketch from the materials collected :

MARTHA’S VINEYARD

Martha’s Vineyard is an island twenty miles long, and from three to nine miles wide, near the southeast coast of Massachusetts. It was dis-

covered in 1602 by Bartholomew Gosnold, who gave it its name. When discovered it proved to be valuable on account of its large growth of sassafras, which was shipped to Europe as a medicine. Thomas Mayhew became Governor of the island in 1641, and soon afterward settled where Edgartown now stands. He and his family were much interested in missionary work among the native Indians. In 1835 Martha's Vineyard was first used as a camp meeting ground; and of late years the annual gathering on the island for religious purposes has been very large. It has also become a popular summer resort. Near Gay Head, a promontory at the west end of the island, a remnant of a tribe of native Indians may still be found.

EXERCISES

914. *The following subjects for biographical sketches are suggested:*

1. An autobiography.

State date and place of birth; name and occupation of parents; where you have lived; things first remembered; where you have attended school; what you have studied; what you like to do best; interesting events in your life; plans for the future.

2. Biography of a schoolmate or near friend.

State date and place of birth; name and occupation of parents; where he has lived; where he has attended school; interesting events in his life; what he does; disposition and leading traits of character.

3. The most prominent man of your acquaintance.

4. The President of the United States. 5. George Washington. 6. Robert Fulton. 7. Abraham Lincoln. 8. John G. Whittier. 9. Queen Victoria. 10. Moses.

915. *The following subjects for historical sketches are suggested:*

1. The place in which you live. 2. Your native county. 3. Your native state. 4. The school you are

attending. 5. The largest city or town you have visited. 6. California. 7. New York City. 8. Mexico. 9. The French Republic. 10. The American Indians.

PREPOSITIONS

916. A **preposition** is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to form a phrase, which it joins to the word that the phrase modifies.

Or, a *preposition* is a word that shows the relation of an object, an action, or a quality to an object. It is frequently defined as a word which shows the relation between its object and some other word.

The principal relations shown by prepositions are those of place, time, and cause, reason, or purpose.

917. The **object** of a preposition is the noun or pronoun with which it is used to form a phrase.

918. The object of a preposition may be —

1. A *word* used as a noun; as, "He went to *Lancaster*." (Noun.) "Come to *me*." (Pronoun.) "After *having fled*," etc. (Verbal.) "Of the *good*." "From *within*." "What are the modifiers of *truly*?"

2. A *phrase* used as a noun; as, "They came from *beyond Jordan*."

From beyond may also be called a preposition. (931.)

3. A *clause* used as a noun; as, "That will be determined by *what he says*." Reason and justice have been jurymen ever since *before Noah was a sailor*. — *Shak*.

919. A preposition may have *two or more objects*, and two or more prepositions may have the *same object*; as, "The difficulties *between England and Ireland* are a source

of *misunderstanding* and *ill feeling*." "They marched *up* and *down* the *hill*."

920. When a word usually a preposition has no word to govern, it becomes an *adverb*, a *noun*, or an *adjective*; as, "Come *in*." "He went *about*." "The man jumped *down*." "It came from *within*." "The plain *below*."

921. The following sentences illustrate two kinds of errors: (1) the use of needless prepositions; (2) the omission of needed prepositions. Correct them.

1. It is no use to me. 2. They were prevented coming.
3. To whom shall we go to for help and for strength?
4. It is to me that he came to. 5. Is he worthy our confidence?
6. I was home.

922. Many prepositions are compound words; as, *into*, *within*, *throughout*, etc.

923. Many prepositions are derivative words; as, *about*, *around*, *below*, *between*, etc.

Position of Prepositions

924. A preposition is generally placed before its object.

925. Prepositions generally precede *whom*, *which*, etc., but may follow them. The pronoun *that*, when used as a subordinate conjunctive (357), always precedes the preposition of which it is the object; as, "The man *with whom* you came." "The city *from which*." "The lady *that* you spoke *to*." "The man *whom* you came *with*."

926. The preposition and its object should be so placed as to show clearly what word is modified by the phrase introduced by the preposition.

927. A **phrase** (or a **clause**) used as a noun takes the place of the noun; as, "*Toward Boston* is east." ("*That you have wronged me* doth appear in this." "I desire *him to study*.")

928. A **phrase** (or a **clause**) used as an adjective generally follows the word that it modifies; as, "The *city of Boston*." (*Pleasure that comes unlooked for* is thrice welcome. — *Rogers*.)

929. A **phrase** (or a **clause**) used as an adverb takes the place of the adverb; as, "I shall go *to Boston in the morning*." (I shall go *there then*.) "*In the morning* I shall go *to Boston*." (*Then* I shall go *there*.) (So, also, "I shall go *when he comes*." (I shall go *then*.) "*When he comes*, I shall go." (*Then* I shall go.)

List of Prepositions

930. The following *prepositions* are in common use :

A ¹ or an	Athwart	During	Respecting ¹²
Aboard	Before	Ere ¹⁸	Save ¹⁹
About	Behind	Except	Since
Above	Below	Excepting ⁹	Through
Across	Beneath	For	Throughout
After ²	Beside ⁶	From	Till ²⁰
Against	Besides ⁷	In ¹⁴	To
Along	Between ⁸	Into ¹⁵	Touching ¹²
Amid ³	Betwixt ⁹	Notwithstanding	Toward
Amidst ⁸	Beyond	Of ¹⁶	Towards
Among ⁴	But ¹⁰	Off ¹⁷	Under
Amongst ⁴	By ¹¹	On ⁵	Underneath
Around	Concerning ¹²	Over	Until ²⁰
At ⁵	Down	Past ¹⁸	Up

Upon	Without	As to	From out
With ¹¹	—	Because of	Instead of ²¹
Within	According to	Contrary to	Out of

1. "It cost one dollar *a* yard." "This perfume is worth thirty cents *an* ounce." "I ride once *a* day." "He gave them four shillings *a-piece*, or *a man*." In Early English (Morris's "Accidence," p. 195), this "a" is seen to be the old preposition "on," "an," or "a." It is *not* (though it might seem to be) the Indefinite Adjective. — *Abbott*. *The* is sometimes incorrectly used for the preposition *a* in such expressions as "one dollar the yard;" "ten cents the pound," etc. 2. Following in time or place. It is sometimes equivalent to *for*. 3. *Amid*, *amidst*, generally imply quantity. 4. *Among*, *amongst*, generally imply number. They should be used only when more than two are referred to. 5. When applied to place, *at* should be used before the names of houses, small places, and distant cities not well known. *At* is used with reference to a point, and *in* or *on* with reference to a place. (See *In*.) 6. By the side of. 7. In addition to. 8. *Between*, *betwixt*, are generally used when only two are referred to. 9. Rare. 10. *But* is generally called a preposition when it is used in the sense of *except*. 11. "I went *by* the house." (See *Past*.) *By* an agent; *with* an instrument. 12. *Concerning*, *respecting*, and *touching* are generally interchangeable. 13. *Ere* = before. 14. *In*, when applied to place, should be used before the names of countries, and large, well-known cities. (See *At*.) "We walk *in* the park." (Motion in a place.) 15. *Into* denotes entrance. It should be used after verbs of motion. 16. The rays *of* (proceeding from) the sun. The castle *of* (belonging to) the king. The news *of* (about) the battle. 17. A variation of *of*. 18. *Past* generally refers to time. 19. *Save* = except. 20. *Till*, *until*, are now used only with reference to time. 21. Often, *in stead of*. (*Cf. In place of*.)

Interesting facts about the meaning and use of many of the foregoing words will be found in any unabridged dictionary.

931. The following *prepositions* are less common :

Abaft, aboard of, adown, alongside, along with, as for, aslant, bating, but for, despite, despite of, from among, from before, from behind, from beyond, from under, inside, outside, over against, pending, per, sans, saving, together with, versus, via, withal, withinside.

RULES OF CONSTRUCTION

932. **Rule 17.** A *preposition* is used to introduce a phrase and join it to the word that the phrase modifies. (235.)

933. **Special Rule 17.** A *preposition* is sometimes used simply to introduce a phrase. (240, 1.)

PARSING

934.

FORMS OF PARSING. — WRITTEN PARSING

Toward the center of the earth is called down.

P
in ph

P
in ph
center

ORAL PARSING

Toward is a preposition. It is used to introduce the phrase *toward center*.

Of is a preposition. It is used to introduce the phrase *of earth*, and join it to *center*.

EXERCISE

935. *Parse the prepositions in the following sentences :*

1. The Island of Britain was the latest of Rome's conquests in the West.— *Green*. 2. I purpose to write the history of England from the accession of King James the Second down to a time which is within the memory of men still living.— *Macaulay*. 3. The curiosity entertained by all civilized nations of inquiring into the exploits and adventures of their ancestors, commonly excites a regret that the history of remote ages should always be so much involved in obscurity, uncertainty, and contradiction.— *Hume*.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

936. *Analyze the following sentences, and parse all the words in them except "O" and the conjunctions :*

1. It was done according to law. 2. Will you not stop walking up¹ and down the hall?

3. But O! the choice what heart can doubt,
Of tents with love, or thrones without? — *Moore*.

4. What can they see in the longest kingly line in Europe, save³ that it runs back to a successful soldier?—*Scott*.

5. Thus was gained by William, Duke of Normandy, the great and decisive victory of Hastings, after a battle which was fought from morning till sunset, and which seemed worthy, by the heroic valor displayed by both armies and by both commanders, to decide the fate of a mighty kingdom.—*Hume*. 6. Whom, therefore, ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you.—*Acts xvii. 23*. 7. Good luck is the willing handmaid of upright, energetic character, and conscientious observance of duty.—*Lowell*.

8. Errors, like straws, upon the surface flow;
He who would search for pearls must dive below.—*Dryden*.

1. Say, it is used with *down* to introduce the phrase *up and down hall*, and join it to *walking*. 2. 918, 3.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED

937. Correct the following errors. (One of the sentences is correct.)

1. Consider of this matter. 2. Don't run; wait on me.
3. I do not agree with those remarks. 4. She was entertained with music. 5. He came on last evening. 6. Where did you get this at? 7. We graduated in Yale. 8. He was presented with a cane. 9. I'll be done till Thursday.
10. The space between three lines is a triangle. 11. The superlative degree implies a comparison between three or more. 12. They are expressed in prose instead of in poetry. 13. Idleness, vice, and infidelity take off the relish and enjoyment from what we might otherwise draw comfort and delight.

DESCRIPTIONS

938. The following directions will be of service in writing *descriptions of objects and places* :

1. Obtain all the information you can about the subject, and make a note of it.

Information may be obtained by seeking answers to such questions as, Where is it? Of what is it made? How large is it? For what is it used? For what is it noted? What things are like it? etc., etc.

2. After you have the information you need, arrange the items in their proper order.

3. Expand the material thus arranged into a description.

Description of Objects

939. The following steps will be of service in writing a description of an *object*; as, *the hand* :

1. We may begin by jotting down the following items :

The hand—where located—the working member—workmen called hands—importance—parts: palm, thumb, fingers—19 bones—nerves—muscles—names of fingers—the ring finger—thumb most important—blind read with fingers—work done by hands in school—letters written—stitches in dress—type on page.

2. These items may now be arranged in an outline as follows :

THE HAND

1. Important part of the upper extremity of the body.

2. Structure: Bones; number (19), location—Muscles—Nerves; fully developed, sense of touch cultivated, the blind.

3. Parts: Palm—Thumb; most important, better supplied with muscles—Fingers; names, ring finger.

4. Work done by the hand: The hand a servant—An important instrument—Illustrations; work done by hands in school, letters written, type on page of book—An emblem of work.

3. The description may now be written as follows:

THE HAND

One of the most important parts of the upper extremity of the human body is the part extending from the wrist to the tips of the fingers, and called the hand.

The structure of the hand is worthy of our careful study. It has nineteen bones, five being in the palm, three in each finger, and two in the thumb. Its movements are made by a number of delicate muscles skillfully arranged. The nervous system is fully developed in all parts of the hand, especially in the fingers. It is well known that the sense of touch by the fingers is capable of a high degree of cultivation. This is illustrated by the blind, who read with the fingers.

Of the three parts of the hand, the palm, the thumb, and the fingers, the thumb is the most important. It is better supplied with muscles than the fingers, and hence has a greater variety of movements than they have. The fingers are named as follows: the index, the middle, the ring, and the little finger. In marriage ceremonies, the ring is placed on the third, or ring finger. It was once thought that a special artery connects this finger with the heart, but modern anatomy has proved that this is not true.

The hand is not only a faithful servant in the performance of physical labor, but it is also the most important instrument used in the world's work. How great is the work, for example, done by the hands in this school! How many words are written, figures made, and lines drawn, daily! Think, too, of the number of letters written and received every day by our friends and acquaintances, of the number of stitches taken in a single dress, and of the number of pieces of type necessary to print a page of a newspaper or a book.

The hand is truly considered an emblem of work; and when a farmer speaks of the "hands" at work in his harvest field, we at once recognize the fitness of the use to which the word has been put.

EXERCISE

940. *The following subjects for descriptions are suggested:*

1. The teeth.

Where found, and number; grown persons have — children have —.

Kinds: Name and number of each kind — wisdom teeth.

Parts: Name and describe each part.

Use: In eating — in speaking — their great value.

How injured: Hot food and drink — hot and cold food and drink — biting hard substances — picking teeth with a pin or knife — neglecting to cleanse teeth.

How preserved: Using properly — cleansing frequently — examined by dentists.

2. Paper.

Materials of which it is made; forms in which it is made; its appearance; uses to which it may be put.

3. An old tree that you have often seen.

Kind, position, size, and shape; its probable age; what may be seen from its top; who have probably rested in its shade, etc.

4. The schoolhouse. 5. Knives. 6. Newspapers.
 7. An old bridge. 8. The telephone. 9. The contents of a boy's pocket.
 10. The contents of a Saratoga trunk.
 11. A sunset. 12. Leather. 13. Iron. 14. Rivers and their uses.
 15. A hive of bees.

Description of Places

941. The following steps will indicate a method of writing a description of a place; as, *Australia*:

1. Facts jotted down:

Australia: Largest island — often called a continent — hot climate — English emigrants engaged in farming, stock raising, gold mining

etc. — high grass — Exports are gold, coal, copper, wheat, and tallow — three fourths the size of the U. S. — Animals: kangaroo and dingo — natives: few, black, degraded — sandy desert — natives live in huts, eat raw flesh, etc. — few large rivers — birds: swan and emu.

2. Facts arranged in an outline :

AUSTRALIA

Size: Largest island — often called a continent — three fourths the size of the U. S.

Inhabitants: Emigrants from England — engaged in farming, stock raising, gold mining, etc. — natives few, black, degraded; live in huts; eat raw flesh, etc.

Climate, soil, etc.: Hot — few large rivers — sandy desert — high grass — noted animals: the kangaroo and dingo — remarkable birds: the swan and emu.

Exports: Chief, gold and wool — other exports: coal, copper, wheat, tallow.

3. Description written from the outline :

AUSTRALIA

Australia is the largest island of Oceania. It is so large that it is often called a continent. It looks small on the map, but it is more than three fourths the size of the United States.

A large number of emigrants from England are settled there. They are engaged in farming, stock raising, gold mining, etc. The natives are few in number, black, and degraded. They live in rude huts, and eat raw flesh, lizards, and worms.

The greater part of Australia is hot. There are but few large rivers on the island. Some parts of the interior are sandy deserts, and other parts are covered with high grass. The most noted animals are the kangaroo and the dingo. The black swan and the emu are the most remarkable birds.

The chief exports are gold and wool. Coal, copper, wheat, and tallow are also exported.

EXERCISE

942. *The following subjects for descriptions are suggested:*

1. Your native town.

Where situated: In what county and State—near what natural object—how far, and in what direction from a city.

Size: Number of inhabitants—length of longest streets.

Public buildings: Name, location, and number.

Inhabitants: Occupation—noted men and women.

Surrounding scenery: Fine views—fine drives—handsome residences, etc.

2. The post office.

Where located—postmaster—number of times mail is received—scenes when mail is distributed—anxiety of persons to receive letters, daily papers, etc.—could we do without post offices?

3. Your own home. 4. The nearest railroad station.
 5. The county in which you live. 6. The State in which you live.
 7. View from the highest point of land in the neighborhood.
 8. The most interesting place you have visited. 9. New York Harbor. 10. Bunker Hill.
 11. Niagara Falls. 12. A trip to California. 13. A trip up the Nile.
 14. A trip down the Mississippi. 15. The place you would like to live in.
 16. A home at the foot of the "Rockies." 17. Yellowstone Park.
 18. Valley Forge during the Revolution.

Description of Processes

943. In describing a *process*—

1. State the materials necessary to do the work.
2. State the things to be done in the order in which they should be done.

EXERCISE

944. *The following subjects for descriptions are suggested:*

1. Making molasses candy.

Materials needed: Molasses, butter, dishes, a steady fire, etc. — steps described: mixing the ingredients, stirring the mixture, testing the candy, cooling it, pulling it — conclusion: the pleasure of making molasses candy, a winter evening's sport.

2. Making bread. 3. Building a barn. 4. Making a horseshoe. 5. Learning to skate. 6. "Breaking" a colt. 7. Gold mining. 8. Mining coal. 9. Teaching a young lady to fire off a pistol. 10. An old bachelor sewing on a button.

Description of Persons

945. In describing a *person*, the following outline will be of use:

1. Form; height, stout or thin, etc.
2. Face; features, expression, etc.
3. Bearing, walk, etc.
4. Manners.
5. Any peculiarity of appearance, dress, etc.
6. Evidence of character, disposition, mental ability, etc.

946. The following description will serve as an illustration:

GENERAL GRANT IN 1864

General Grant was a man of medium height and compact figure, with a slight stoop in his shoulders. His hair and beard were brown and short. His features were marked, but not prominent. His brow was broad and square, and to a close observer indicated unusual development of both intellect and will. He had clear, bright eyes, a

heavy jaw, and a sharply cut mouth, which expressed great strength and firmness. His bearing and manners were plain, modest, and retiring, and his dress was in keeping with his behavior. While in active service he generally wore the regulation undress uniform of a general, without sash or belt, and a low-crown felt hat without any badge upon it of military rank or distinction. The whole man was a marvel of simplicity, a powerful nature veiled in the plainest possible exterior, imposing on all but the acutest judges of character, or the constant companions of his unguarded hours.¹

1. See Badeau's "Military History of General Grant."

EXERCISE

947. *The following subjects for description are suggested:*

1. One of your schoolmates.
2. Some one's grandmother.
3. The most prominent man you have seen.
4. An old man.
5. The baby.
6. The village blacksmith.
7. The person you most admire.
8. My neighbors.
9. The American Indians.
10. A native of China.
11. The President of the United States.
12. A fashionable young man.
13. Rip Van Winkle.
14. Abel Lazybones, a tramp.
15. Queer people we sometimes meet.

CONJUNCTIONS

948. A **conjunction** is a word used to join sentences, or parts of a sentence.

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS

949. Conjunctions are divided into two chief classes: *coördinate conjunctions* and *subordinate conjunctions*.

950. A **coördinate conjunction** is a conjunction used to join sentences, or parts of a sentence that have the same

construction; as, "I go, *but* I return." "Phillips Brooks was a vigorous *and* independent thinker." (47.)

951. A coördinate conjunction is placed between the parts of a sentence joined by it.

952. A **subordinate conjunction** is a conjunction used with a subject and a predicate to form a clause, which it joins to the word that the clause modifies; as, "Was not Aristides banished *because* he was just?" (54.)

953. A subordinate conjunctive (248) is placed at the beginning of the clause that it introduces; as, "*If thy right eye offend thee*, pluck it out." (95, 4.)

954. The principal *coördinate conjunctions* are—

Copulative: *and, as well as,*¹ *moreover.* **Adversative:** *but, yet.* **Alternative:** *nor,*² *or.*

1. *As well as*, when *and also* can be used in its stead, is a copulative, coördinate conjunction. 2. *Nor*, when equivalent to *and not*, might be called a *coördinate conjunctive adverb*, or an *adverbial conjunction*.

955. The principal *subordinate conjunctions* are—

Causal: *as* (= because), *because, for, lest, since* (= because), *whereas.* **Conditional:** *except, if, provided, unless.* **Comparative:** *than.* **Concessive:** *though, although.* **Demonstrative:** *that.* **Indeterminate:** *whether.*

956. To the foregoing list may be added *as if, as though, except that, provided that, save, saving that, seeing that, however, inasmuch as, forasmuch as, so that, in order that, notwithstanding, so as*, etc.

Such words as *therefore, hence, still, accordingly, consequently, yet, likewise, also*, etc., are only simple adverbs—not even connective adverbs; still less are they mere conjunctions.—*Mason.*

957. Sometimes a word usually an adverb, when it is near the beginning of a sentence or a clause, may be considered a conjunction; as, “*Now* Barabbas was a robber.” “Do as you please; *only* do not expect me to help you.”

958. Some conjunctions are compound words; as, *nevertheless, whereas, notwithstanding*, etc.

959. Some conjunctions are derivative words; as, *became, unless*, etc.

960. The following *cautions* should be observed:

1. In a series of similar terms the conjunction is generally used between the last two only, and a comma follows each term but the last; as, “A clause may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.”

But the conjunction may be repeated after each term for emphasis; as, “Be good, and kind, and thoughtful, and polite.” Let us remember, however, that the unnecessary repetition of *and* greatly weakens the force of a sentence.

2. Do not use *but that* or *but what* for *that*; *neither—or*, for *neither—nor*; *other—but*, for *other—than*; *whether or no* for *whether or not*; *if* for *whether*.

EXERCISE

961. *Correct the following errors:*

1. I don't know but what I will go. 2. It was no other but James. 3. Neither him or her done it. 4. I met John, James, and William and Henry. 5. Have you heard if he was elected?

Correlative Conjunctions

962. *Read the following sentences :*

1. Both schools and churches are educators. 2. Schools and churches are educators. 3. Neither moon nor stars could be seen. 4. The problem is so difficult that we cannot solve it. 5. I do not know whether I shall go or stay.

What conjunction follows the word "both"? "Neither"? "So"? "Whether"? Could we say "both churches or schools"? Why not? What conjunction must follow "both"? What two words are necessary to join "moon" and "stars"? What word prepares the way for "nor"? For "that"? What part of speech is "so"? What conjunction follows "whether"? *Both* and *and* are called correlatives, because *both* prepares the way for *and*, and is followed by *and*. What correlatives are in the third sentence? The fourth? The fifth?

963. **Correlatives** are words used in pairs, the latter of which is a *coördinate conjunction* or a *subordinate conjunctive*.

They are said to be *correlative* (*i.e.* to have a mutual relation), because the former is always followed by the latter.

964. The **antecedent** or **preparatory term** may be —

1. A *pronoun*; as, "Such as I have, give I thee."
2. An *adjective*; as, "Take *such* books as you need."
"Hydrogen is eleven thousand times *lighter* than water."
3. An *adverb* expressing comparison; as, "Time is *as* precious as gold." "How much *earlier* does the sun rise in summer than in winter?"
4. An *adverb of emphasis*; as, "*Both* natural philosophy and chemistry are useful."

5. A *subordinate conjunction*; as, "I do not know *whether* I shall go or stay."

965. The *subsequent term* may be —

1. A *coördinate conjunction*; as, "Both natural philosophy *and* chemistry are useful." "I do not know *whether* I shall go *or* stay."

2. A *subordinate conjunction*; as, "Water is much heavier *than* air."

3. A *relative pronoun*; as, "Such *as* I have, give I thee." (368.)

4. A *conjunctive adverb*; as, "She did as well *as* I."

966. The *principal correlatives* are —

As (adv.) — *as*¹ (conj. adv.); *so* (adv.); *as*¹ (conj. adv.); *so* (adv.) — *that* (sub. conj.); *both*² (adv.) — *and* (coör. conj.); *either*² (adv.) — *or*³ (coör. conj.); *more* (adv.) — *than*⁴ (sub. conj.); *though* (sub. conj.) — *yet* (adv.); *not* (adv.) *only* (adv.) — *but* (coör. conj.) *also* (adv.), or *not only* (coör. conj.) — *but also* (coör. conj.); *such* (adj. or pro.) — *as* (rel. pro.); *the* (conj. adv.) — *the* (adv.); *neither*² (adv.) — *nor*³ (coör. conj.); *whether* (sub. conj.) — *or* (coör. conj.).

1. 820, 2. In "He did as well as I," the first *as* modifies *well*; the second *as* modifies *well* understood, and joins the clause *as I (did well)* to *well*. 2. The correlatives *both*, *either*, and *neither* are adverbs of emphasis, modifying the two parts of the sentence joined by the conjunctions that follow them. They are usually called conjunctions. 3. Poets sometimes use *or* — *or* instead of *either* — *or*, and *nor* — *nor* instead of *neither* — *nor*. 4. *Than* is generally used as the correlative of an adjective or an adverb in the comparative degree.

967. When *both* — *and*, *either* — *or*, *neither* — *nor*, and *not only* — *but also* are used, the part of the sentence that follows the first term of the correlatives should be similar to the part following the second. Thus, "I will either meet you at Lancaster or West Chester," or "I will meet you either at Lancaster or West Chester," should be "either *at Lancaster* or *at West Chester*," "at either *Lancaster* or *West Chester*," or "either *meet you at Lancaster* or *meet you at West Chester*."

RULES OF CONSTRUCTION

968. Rule 18. A *coördinate conjunction* is used to join sentences or parts of a sentence that have the same construction.

969. Special Rule 18. A *coördinate conjunction* is sometimes used simply to introduce a sentence.

970. Special Rule 19. The *coördinate conjunction* *or* is sometimes used to join an appositive noun to the word that it modifies; as, "A sovereign, or supreme *governor*, rules in England."

971. Rule 12. A *subordinate conjunctive* is used to introduce a clause, and join it to the word that the clause modifies. (537.)

972. Special Rule 7. A *subordinate conjunctive* is sometimes used simply to introduce a clause. (538.)

The rules for subordinate conjunctives apply to subordinate conjunctions.

973. Special Rule 20. The subordinate conjunction *as* is sometimes used to introduce a word or a phrase; as, "A noun is a word used as a name; as, *Rome*."

PARSING

974.

FORMS OF PARSING

I. Money is made for the comfort and convenience of animal life. — *Burke*.

ORAL PARSING

And is a *coördinate conjunction*. It is used to join *comfort* and *convenience*.

WRITTEN PARSING

and
CC
com & con

2. Mr. Smith, as well as his friends, was deceived.

ORAL PARSING

As well as is a coördinate conjunction. It is used to join *Mr. Smith was deceived* and *his friends were deceived*, the predicate of the second member being understood.

WRITTEN PARSING

as well as
cc
1 m & 2 m

3. But grief, even in a child, hates the light, and shrinks from human eyes. — *De Quincey*.

ORAL PARSING

But is a coördinate conjunction. It is used to introduce the sentence, *But grief hates*, etc.

WRITTEN PARSING

But
cc
in sen

4. If we wish to know the force of human genius, we should read Shakspeare. — *Hazlitt*.

ORAL PARSING

If is a subordinate conjunction. It is used to introduce the clause *If we wish*, etc., and join it to *should read*.

WRITTEN PARSING

If
sc
in cl
should read

5. That that is false, is true.

ORAL PARSING

That is a subordinate conjunction. It is used to introduce the clause *That that is false*.

WRITTEN PARSING

That
sc
in cl

EXERCISE

975. Parse the conjunctions in the following sentences :

1. 'Twi'x Want and Scorn she walked forlorn,
And nothing could avail. — *Willis*.

2. The "Battle of the Spurs" and the "Battle of Flodden Field" were fought on the same day. 3. And then came the thought of all his old schoolfellows. — *Hughes*.

4. Sleep shall neither night nor day
Hang upon his penthouse lid. — *Shak.*
5. But in asking a question, we are accustomed to use *shall* or *will*, according as the one or the other is to be used in reply. — *Whitney.* 6. Do you know whether the velocity of light has been accurately determined or not? 7. He spoke and acted as if his life depended on the result. 8. Because salt water has a greater lifting capacity than fresh water, a person can rest on the Dead Sea as comfortably as if reclining on a spring mattress. 9. Why does a leaf fall more slowly than an apple or a nut? 10. On the soil of thought and in the garden of the heart, as well as in the sensual world, lie withered leaves, the ideas and feelings that we have done with. — *Hawthorne.* 11. The more, the merrier.
12. My heart aches, and a drowsy numbness pains
My sense, as though of hemlock I had drunk;
Or emptied some dull opiate to the drains
One minute past, and Lethe-ward had sunk. — *Keats.*

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

976. Analyze the foregoing sentences (975), and parse all the words contained in them.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED

977. Correct the following errors. (One sentence is correct.)

1. Henry will not go away without you stay at home.
2. I will see if it rains or no. 3. I have no doubt but

that he is right. 4. O fairest flower, no sooner blown but blasted! 5. Ye shall not worship any other except God. 6. I am neither an ascetic in theory or practice. 7. They are not only offensive, but also repulsive. 8. His mission was to prepare the Jews for the reception of a prophet mightier than him, and whose shoes he was not worthy to bear. 9. About the time of Solon, the custom is said to have been introduced, and which still prevails, of writing from left to right.

RESPONSIVES

978. A **responsive** is the word *yes, yea, ay, no, nay, or amen*, used to reply or respond to a question or a petition.

CLASSES OF RESPONSIVES

979. *Read the following sentences :*

1. Is Autumn dying? Yes. 2. Do you expect him? No.

Which words are responsives in the foregoing sentences? Which one is affirmative? Which is negative?

980. Responsives are of two classes: *affirmative responsives* and *negative responsives*.

981. **Affirmative responsives** express affirmation. They are *yes, yea, ay, and amen*.

982. **Negative responsives** express negation. They are *no* and *nay*.

RULE

983. Rule 19. A *responsive* is used independently.

PARSING

984. *Parse the following responses :*

1. Will you go? Yes.

ORAL PARSING

Yes is an affirmative responsive. It is used independently.

WRITTEN PARSING

Yes
a r
ind

2. No, he did not succeed. 3. "Yes, I saw him," she said softly.

INTERJECTIONS

985. An **interjection** is a word used simply to express a sudden feeling or to call attention.

CLASSES OF INTERJECTIONS

986. *Read the following sentences :*

1. Alas, poor Yorick! 2. Hurrah! the work is done.
3. Pshaw!

Which of the foregoing interjections expresses pity? Joy? Contempt?

987. The following are the *chief classes* of interjections :

1. **Pity.** *Alas! oh! ah! welladay!* etc.
2. **Joy.** *Hurrah! good! bravo!* etc.
3. **Laughter.** *Ha, ha! he, he!* etc.
4. **Surprise.** *Ha! what! heigh! indeed! oh! la! zounds!* etc.
5. **Contempt.** *Pshaw! pish! pooh! fie! bah!* etc.
6. **Silence.** *Hush! hish! 'st! mum!* etc.

7. **Interrogating.** *Eh?* etc.

8. **Saluting or parting.** *Welcome! hail! adieu! good-by!*
(and perhaps *good morning! good night!*) etc.

988. Words from other parts of speech, and groups of words, when used simply to express a sudden feeling, become **interjections**; as, *nonsense! behold! strange! thunder and lightning!*

989. Imitative words, and words used in speaking to inferior animals, are generally called **interjections**; as, *patter, patter! whoa! gee! scat!*

990. Some interjections are compound words; *welladay, farewell*, etc.

991. Some interjections are derivative words; as, *adieu, begone*, etc.

RULE

992. **Rule 20.** *An interjection is used independently.*

PARSING

993. *Parse the following interjections:*

1. "O stay!" the maiden said. — *Longfellow*.

ORAL PARSING	WRITTEN PARSING
<p><i>O</i> is an interjection of address. It is used independently.</p>	<p><u><i>O</i></u> i ad ind</p>

2. Ah, well! for us all some sweet hope lies
Deeply buried from human eyes. — *Whittier*.

3. O sleep! it is a gentle thing. — *Coleridge*. 4. Lickety,
lickety, switch, we came to the ford. — *Bret Harte*.

5. O Jones, my dear! — O dear! my Jones,
What is become of you? — *Hood*.

EXERCISES IN THE FORMATION OF WORDS

994. *Which of the following words are simple, and which compound?*

Sign, music, gentleman, watchman, whalebone, true, school-teaching, henceforward, penknife, argus-eyed, plow, plowshare, post, posthaste, signpost.

995. *To what parts of speech do the following words usually belong? What words are united to form them?*

Pickpocket, onset, withstand, low-toned, herewith, overhead, outwit, everlasting, thereto, forever, without, however, gentleman, underneath, upon, underbrush, wire-pulling, backslide, godsend, seven-hilled, notwithstanding, inkstand, overlook, whereof, good-by.

996. *What compound words can be formed from the following list?*

Ill, set, star, with, take, bold, out, man, day, in, draw, bred, looking, natured, up, sun, will, come, gazing, bridge, under, over, kind, work.

997. *Which of the following words are simple, which compound, and which derivative? Of what words are the compound words composed? Point out the prefixes and suffixes of the derivative words. From what words are they derived?*

Coachman, table, hardihood, untruthfully, footstep, praiseworthiness, hilly, vocalization, useful, duty, fix, unfettered, classmate, conscience-stricken, teaspoon, friendly, unsuspectingly, correlative, adverbially, quicksilver, coquettishly, teacher, miller, ungraceful, affectionate.

NARRATIVE AND DESCRIPTION COMBINED

998. In the narrative given in paragraph 809, is found a brief description of a dip net, which is appropriately inserted to make the narrative more easily understood. It will be found that these two forms of composition — narrative and description — are generally combined, the purpose of the composition determining in most cases which form is to be made the more prominent.

999. No definite rules in addition to those already stated will be given for the writing of compositions of this kind. It seems natural to begin with a brief description, though this rule is not always followed. Do not introduce a long description so as to break into the narrative abruptly. Combine description with narrative in such a way as to make your characters as real and lifelike as possible. Try to have an appropriate ending to every composition that you write.

1000. *The following subjects are suggested:*

1. In a Sleigh in a Blizzard.
2. A Narrow Escape from Drowning.
3. Washington's Army at Valley Forge.
4. Paul before Agrippa.
5. A Fire in a Crowded Tenement House.
6. From your Home to a Neighboring Town on a Bicycle.
7. An Excursion Trip to Niagara Falls.
8. A Fishing Trip with Three Companions.
9. A Fourth of July Celebration.
10. Your most Thrilling Adventure.
11. Your most Interesting Trip.
12. The Children of Israel Crossing the Red Sea.
13. The Dedication of a New Schoolhouse.

ABBREVIATED AND IRREGULAR CONSTRUCTIONS

Abbreviated Constructions

1001. Sentences may be abbreviated —

1. By omitting words that affect the grammatical relation of some of the remaining words and are necessary to their construction; as, "She is as lovely as (she) ever (was lovely)." "It is good news if (it is) true." "Dot (you) your i's."

Words thus omitted must be supplied and disposed of in parsing and analysis.

2. By omitting words that affect the grammatical relation of some of the remaining words, but are not necessary to their construction; as, "The ring (that is) on my finger I will not take off." "He looks as (he would look) if he were frightened." (956.)

Words thus omitted need not be supplied in parsing or analysis.

A few abbreviated expressions have already been presented for analysis. The design of this section is to call attention more fully to constructions of this nature.

1002. A sentence from which words have been omitted that are necessary to the construction of the remaining words is an *elliptical sentence*. (1001, 1.)

The omitted words of an elliptical sentence must be supplied in parsing and analysis. (1006, 1007.)

1003. The desire to be brief causes us —

1. To avoid repetitions; as, "Time is as precious as gold (is precious)." "He looks as (he would look) if he were tired."

It is also true that the desire to avoid repetitions causes us to be brief.

2. To omit words not essential to the sense; as, "A bird (that is) in the hand is worth two (that are) in the bush."

1004. Sentences are abbreviated in all kinds of discourse, but more frequently than elsewhere, in common conversation and in emotional expressions.

1005. Brevity is one of the commonest causes of irregularity, hence many abbreviated expressions are irregular.

1006. Simple sentences are often abbreviated.

EXAMPLES. — "Where did you go yesterday?" "(I went) to Lancaster." "How (did you go)?" "(I went) with Mr. Frantz." "What news (is there)?" "Where (are you going) now?" "(You) call at Smith's (store)." "(I) thank you." "(This is) a fine day." "(Go ye) to your tents, O Israel!" "(To) Joshua L. Lyte, (at) Lancaster, (in) Pa." "Hidden dangers are the most difficult (dangers) to avoid."

1007. Complex sentences frequently contain abbreviated expressions.

EXAMPLES. — "He came as soon as (it was) possible (to come soon)." "She loves him better than (she loves) me; than I (love him)." ("Better than John" is ambiguous; why?) It is much easier to be critical than (it is easy) to be correct. — *Beaconsfield*. The night hath been to me a more familiar face than that of man (hath been a familiar face). — *Byron*. "The advantages of this world, even when (they are) innocently gained, are uncertain blessings." What blockheads are those wise persons who think it (to be) necessary that a child should comprehend everything (that) it reads. — *Southey*.

1008. Words used in the first member of a compound sentence are frequently omitted from the second member.

EXAMPLES. — "The cars are running, but not the stage (the stage is not running)." I knew him well and every truant knew (him well). — *Goldsmith*. Grace was in all her steps, heaven (was) in her eye,

in every gesture (were) dignity and love.—*Milton*. To astonish, as well as to sway by his energies (became the aim, etc.), became the great aim of his life.—*Channing*. “Contemporaries appreciate the man, rather than (they appreciate) the merit; but posterity will regard the merit, rather than (it will regard) the man.” “The land, but not the buildings (were sold), was sold.” “Not the land (was sold), but the buildings were sold.” (1002.)

Irregular Constructions

1009. An irregular construction is a construction that deviates from the general principles or rules that govern the relation and form of words.

The proper method of disposing of a number of irregular constructions is stated in some of the special rules. The object of this section is to show how some of these difficult expressions originated.

1010. To dispose of the words of an irregular construction, we should, if possible—

1. Ascertain the regular construction.
2. Ascertain the cause of the irregularity.

1011. Among the commonest causes of irregularity are—

1. The desire to be brief. (1006.)

ILLUSTRATION. — “All¹ the¹ oranges” for “All of the oranges.” So also “half¹ the oranges.” But “one half of the oranges,” not “one half the oranges”; “half¹ an orange” or “one half of an orange,” not “one half an orange,” etc.

2. The confounding of one construction with another.

ILLUSTRATION. — “A dozen² oranges.” According to rule, we should say “a dozen of oranges” as we say “a score of oranges.” But since *a dozen = twelve*, we are led to say “a dozen oranges.” So also “a hundred² men,” “a few men,” “a great many men,” etc.

Some words have a twofold use, etc., page 325.

1. Adj.
2. A noun used as an adjective.

3. The desire for euphony, or strength.

ILLUSTRATION. — “Books have I none.” “It is he,” for “he is it” (Ger. *Er ist es*). So also, “that is yours,” “this news of *Blanche's*,” “this husband of yours,” etc. Compare “that is your(s)” with “that is John's.” The *s* seems to have been added to *your*, partly by confounding the two constructions, and partly, too, to avoid the harshness and weakness of “that is your.” (I wol be your in alle that ever I may. — *Chaucer*.) So, also, “hers is lost,” etc.

In “this husband of yours,” “this news of *Blanche's*,” *yours* and *Blanche's* are usually disposed of as modifying a noun omitted. It may be remarked that *Blanche's*, in “this news of *Blanche's*,” is illogically used for *Blanche* to avoid the confusion arising from confounding the two meanings of *of* (*about* and *belonging to*); and, also, that *yours* is used for *your* by confounding one construction with another and to avoid harshness, and *your* for *you* to distinguish between the two meanings of *of* (this husband of yours = this husband belonging to you). But see under Rule for possessives.

A few grammarians call mine, yours, hers, etc., “possessive pronouns used only in the nominative or objective case.”

4. The desire for accuracy.

ILLUSTRATION. — “His being a Roman protected them,” for “he being a Roman,” etc. “He being a Roman protected them” is grammatically correct, but ambiguous. To prevent ambiguity, the pronoun is put in the possessive case. But since ambiguity rarely occurs in constructions of this kind except when *proper nouns* and *personal pronouns* are used, the best writers use the nominative or the objective form in most other instances. The report of an armed force having assembled, etc. — *Prescott*.

Poetical Constructions

1012. The following constructions are common in poetry:

1. Inverted constructions; as, —

From peak to peak the rattling crags among
Leaps the live thunder. — *Byron*.

2. Abbreviated constructions; as, —

Who pants for glory, finds but short repose;
A breath revives him, or a breath o'erthrows. — *Pope*.

(O'erthrows *him*.) *Who* is probably a conjunctive pronoun (having the sense of *whoso*). Pope has a number of similar examples, which seem to be an imitation of Latin usage; as, "To help who want, to forward who excel," etc.

3. Irregular constructions; as, The Pope he was saying the high, high mass. — *Scott*.

4. Ancient or obsolete constructions; as, Breathes there the man with soul so dead? — *Scott*. (Does there breathe, etc.) The poor contents him with the care of heaven. — *Pope*. (Him = himself.)

Many of the poetical selections that have been given contain these peculiarities.

EXERCISE

Which of the poetical selections in paragraphs 284 and 993 are inverted? Which are abbreviated? Can you find any irregular constructions? Ancient constructions?

Mathematical Constructions

1013. The written language of mathematics consists mainly of symbols.

1014. Mathematical expressions are characterized by brevity. They contain many irregular constructions.

NUMBERS

1015. The names of numbers used abstractly are nouns in the singular number; as, "*Seventy-five is one half of one hundred and fifty.*" " $\frac{3}{4}$ of 100 is 75." " $2\frac{5}{8}$ is $\frac{3}{4}$ of $2\frac{1}{4}$." (Each sentence contains three nouns. Point them out.)

1016. Fractional numbers are usually singular; as, "*Three fourths of eight is six.*"

Are is frequently used, and is probably allowable when $\frac{3}{4}$ is regarded as *three times* the fractional number $\frac{1}{4}$ instead of the fractional number $\frac{3}{4}$. Thus, "one fourth of eight is two, and three fourths of eight

are three times two, or six." Here *three* may be considered an adjective modifying the noun *fourths*. But "*three fourths* of eight is *six*." Here *three fourths* is a noun.

1017. When used concretely, integral and mixed numbers are numeral adjectives; as, "*Twenty-five* dollars," " $1\frac{1}{2}$ liquid quarts."

1018. Fractional numbers should not be used as adjectives except in combination with integers.

We should not say $\frac{1}{2}$ pint, $\frac{3}{4}$ dollars, $\frac{7}{8}$ bushels, .6 gallons, but $\frac{1}{2}$ of a pint, three fourths of a dollar (not *three fourth*), seven halves of a bushel, six tenths of a gallon. (" $\frac{1}{2}$ pt.," " $\frac{3}{4}$ bu.," etc., are frequently written, but in construing the words, *of* should be supplied.)

But we may say one and one half dollars, two and three fourths (not *fourth*) bushels, $3\frac{3}{8}$ dozen, etc. ($3\frac{3}{8}$ = three and five sixths.) In these constructions the mixed numbers are numerical adjectives. "1 liter equals 2.113 American pints."

THE FOUR FUNDAMENTAL RULES

1019. " $3 + 2 = 5$." Three plus two equals five = three (with two more equals five. *Plus* is an adjective modifying *two*. So also, 5 plus 2 is 7. *Are* is also frequently used. If *are* is correct, $3 + 2 = 3$ (and) 2 more. "4 and 3 are 7" is grammatically correct. "3 apples + 2 apples equal 5 apples," since the first noun *apples* is the subject.

Equals or *equal* is to be preferred to *is* or *are* in reading equations, except possibly in the multiplication table. Here for euphony we say "5 times 1 is 5," "5 times two is 10," etc. (1021.)

1020. " $5 - 2 = 3$." Five minus two equals three; five (with) two less equals three. *Minus* is used like *plus*. So also $5 - 2$ is 3. *Are* is also sometimes used; but its use is to be questioned. 5 apples minus two apples *equal* 3 apples, since the first noun *apples* is the subject.

1021. " $5 \times 2 = 10$." Five times two equals ten; or, five times two is ten. Two (taken) five times equals ten. "5 times 2 are 10" is frequently used. But we say "5 times the number is (not are) 10"; "5 times the son's age equals (not equal) the father's."

1022. " $10 \div 2 = 5$." Ten divided by two equals five.

ALGEBRAIC AND GEOMETRIC EXPRESSIONS

1023. " $x^2 + y^2 = 10$." x squared (with) y squared more equals 10. (" x square" is often used.) " $3x = 6$." Three times $x = 6$. " $\frac{x^4}{4} = y^2$." x (raised to the) fourth (power) divided by 4 equals y squared. (Do not say " x^4 over 4.")

1024. " $\angle ABC + \angle ACB$," etc., = angle ABC (with) angle ACB more, etc. ABC is an appositive noun.

Let $ABCD$ be a polygon.

1025. " $A : B :: C : D$." A is to B as C is to D ; or, the ratio of A to B equals the ratio of C to D ; or, A divided by B equals C divided by D .

1026. In " $3 + 2 = 5$," " $5 - 2 = 3$," " $5 \times 2 = 10$," " $10 \div 2 = 5$," " $x^2 + y^2 = 10$," " $3x = 6$," " $\frac{x^4}{4} = y^2$," " $\angle ABC + \angle ACB = \angle ACD$," etc., it is not incorrect to regard each equation as made up of two nouns with the verb equals between them.

OUTLINE

$Cx \text{ } Im \left| \begin{array}{l} (you)^a \\ Let \frac{p}{+} \\ do \left| \begin{array}{l} ABCD^a \\ be - \frac{p}{+} \\ polygon^{ppn} \\ a^{adj} \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$

ESSAYS AND ORATIONS

ESSAYS

1027. **Essays** are generally more formal and systematic than narratives or descriptions. They include a wide range of subjects, and differ greatly in length, method of treatment, and general style.

In writing essays upon abstract subjects, the following method of treatment will be of use to students :

Introduction. Preliminary remarks appropriate to the subject, and to the reader or audience.

General nature. Clear description of subject—definition, when necessary—compared with contrary.

Origin or cause. State and illustrate by examples, etc.

Its effects. Upon the individual—upon the community—illustrate by examples, quotations, anecdotes, etc.

Conclusion. Practical application—our duty—result, etc.

1028. The steps necessary in writing an essay may be indicated somewhat as follows :

1. *Select the subject.* The subject must suit—

(a) The writer. Do not take too broad a subject. Most young persons will write a better essay on “Duties of Children” or “Duties of Pupils” than on “Duty.”

(b) The hearer or reader. Essays to be read in a public assemblage must be adapted to the audience in both subject and matter.

2. *Collect the material.* When you have selected the subject, jot down all you know about it. Then surround it with questions. Suppose, for example, your subject is *Modesty*. Ask, What is modesty? How is it manifested? What are its characteristics? How can we tell a modest person? Does modesty forbid all self-esteem? Can it be acquired? Why are modest persons admired? What great men have been noted for modesty? etc.

Think, talk, read, about modesty; but especially *think* about it. And think with notebook and pencil in hand. After the material is collected, the next step may be taken.

3. *Arrange the material.* The material that you have gathered may now be arranged somewhat as follows :

MODESTY

Introduction. Many persons possess some peculiar virtue or vice—frugality, great love of truth—the spendthrift, the vain person—are many noted for modesty?

Nature. Definition—not ignorance of our own merits—nor distrust—a fair and moderate estimate of our ability—a self-esteem below what we deserve—compared with bashfulness—with humility—with conceit—a lovely trait of character—shown in actions and words.

Origin, how obtained, etc. Modesty partly inborn — may be acquired by proper study (“a scholar is always modest”) — by associating with persons superior to ourselves — by observing those who are not modest, etc.

Effects. It renders the mind susceptible to instruction and good counsel — it prevents jealousy — it attracts, makes friends — it is justly considered as associated with virtue.

Conclusion. This virtue should be cultivated — example of great men — immodesty in word or act always unjustifiable, etc.

4. *Expand the material into a composition.* Express your thoughts in the easiest and most natural way, observing rules for spelling, etc.

5. *Read, criticise, and rewrite, if necessary.* Look at every word to see whether it is used correctly and spelled correctly. See whether every sentence can be analyzed, and whether it is expressed in the best manner, and is punctuated properly. See that the parts are properly connected, that there are no abrupt breaks, etc.

EXERCISE

1029. *Write essays on the following subjects :*

1. Modesty, following the outline given above.
2. Sleep.

Introduction. We are naturally active — require exercise — need rest — compare rest and idleness, etc.

Kinds. Ordinary sleep — dozing, etc.

Cause. Fatigue — exhaustion — disease, etc.

Effects. Strengthens body and mind — prevents utter exhaustion — each morning we are refreshed — troubles forgotten, etc.

Compared with death.

How to obtain sleep. Be industrious — sleep in well-ventilated rooms, in clean beds — be careful about eating and drinking — keep a clear conscience, etc.

3. Anger.

The passions in general. What is anger? — a species of insanity — mental derangement — mental suffering — etymology of “passion,” etc.

It produces mortification, humiliation, remorse—causes crime—makes enemies—brings unhappiness—is the source of war.

Our duty—self-control a virtue—“He that is slow to anger,” etc.

4. On the Treatment of Animals.

Man's superior organization—labor of animals—does the body require animal food?—animals furnish clothing—is it right to destroy animals?—man should not be cruel—food and rest for working animals.

5. Habits. 6. Novel Reading. 7. Sunshine. 8. Irish Character. 9. The First Lie. 10. Make Haste Slowly. 11. Bores. 12. Learn to Say No. 13. White Lies. 14. Politeness. 15. Never Too Late to Learn.

ORATIONS

1030. The foregoing suggestions will be of service in the preparation of “orations.” An oration is intended for public delivery. Its main object is to persuade others to think as the orator thinks. A few special suggestions may be of service:

1. The introduction should be modest, brief, and appropriate. The discussion should be concise and clear. The conclusion should be natural and strong. Remember that the “last word” is important.

2. The presentation of truth, the relation of incidents and anecdotes, descriptions of persons and places, argumentation, appeal to the feelings—all these are appropriate in an oration, if the object of the oration is not lost sight of.

3. Remember that an oration is to be spoken—not read. Always try to imagine what your audience will be,

and write to influence them. Remember, too, that the manner of a speaker often makes as deep an impression as the thought he utters. Be natural. Do not rant. Pronounce distinctly. Do not "over-gesticulate."

1031. MISCELLANEOUS NOTES

A, An. "A man"; "An owl"; *adj.* "It cost ten cents *a* yard"; "ten cents *an* ounce"; *prep.*, 930. "Catch me *an* thou canst"; *sub. conj.*

Above. "The clouds *above* us"; *prep.* "The clouds *above*"; "The *above* remarks"; *adj.* "They float *above*"; *adv.*

Adieu. *Adieu! adieu! int.* "He bade me *adieu*"; *noun.*

Adjective Forms. In poetry, the adjective form of a word is frequently used as an adverb; as, "The swallow sings *sweet* from her nest in the wall."

After. "He left *after* her"; *prep.* "He left soon *after*"; *adv.* "He left *after* she came"; *conj. adv.*

Again. "Come *again*"; *adv.* "He came *again and again*"; *ph. adv.*

Ago. "She died eleven years *ago*"; *adv.* (*Years, a. o. of ago.*) "He staid till a few minutes *ago*"; *obj. of till.* (*Minutes, a. o. of ago.*)

Alas. "*Alas* for the man!" *int.* ("*Alas*, I feel pity for the man!" or "*Alas*, I am sorry for the man!")

Alike. "We are *alike*"; *adj.* "We talk *alike*"; *adv.*

All. "*All* times"; "*All* these"; "*All* the books"; "*All* ye"; *adj.* "Ye *all*"; "*All* is lost"; "The city, cannon, and stores were *all* destroyed"; *pron.* "Our little *all*"; *noun.* "He is *all* alone"; "Cheeks *all* pale"; *All* heart they live. — *Milton*; *adv.* "They are *all* alone"; ambiguous.

All, any, enough, more, most, no, and some generally relate to quantity when used with or instead of a singular noun, and to number when used with or instead of a plural noun.

Alone. "He walks *alone*"; *adv.* "I am *alone*"; "Let it (be) *alone*"; *adj.* "Man *alone* is endowed with reason," should probably be, "Only man is endowed," etc.

Any. "Any one"; *adj.* "Any of us"; *pron.* "Is he any worse?"
adv.

As. "It is *as* cold as ice"; *adv.* "As cold *as* ice"; "He came *as* I left"; "Do *as* I do"; *conj. adv.* "*As* he has come, I shall go"; "His appointment *as* clerk"; *sub. conj.* "Such *as* I have," etc.; *rel. pron.* "He walks *as if* he were tired"; *part of sub. conj.* "*As to* that," etc.; *part of prep.* "He, *as well as* I," etc.; *part of coör. conj.*

As, in "His appointment *as* clerk," "He went out *as* mate," etc., is generally called a "conjunction denoting apposition." It seems proper to say that *as clerk* is a conjunctive phrase modifying *appointment*, to which it is joined by *as*, and *clerk* is used in apposition with *his* (510). So, also, the conjunctive phrase *as mate* may be said to modify *went*, *mate* being also a modifier of *he*.

As follows may be construed as a phrase adverb (815). Probably, *as* is the subject of the verb in *as appears*, *as concerns*, and *as regards*. (Some grammarians supply *it*.)

Before. "They went *before*"; *adv.* "Go *before* him"; *prep.* "He came *before* I left"; *conj. adv.*

Below. "The plain *below* us"; *prep.* "The plain *below*"; *adj.* "They went *below*"; *adv.* "They came from *below*"; *noun.* So *beneath*.

Beside, besides. "Thou art *beside* thyself"; *prep.* "*Besides* this"; *prep.* "And, *besides*, the Moor may unfold me to him"; *adv.* "All the world *beside*"; *adj.*

Best. "This is *best*"; *adj.* "What can you *best* do?" *adv.*

Better. "This is *better*"; *adj.* "What can you do *better*?" *adv.*

Both. "*Both* girls"; "*Both* these"; *adj.* or *pron.* "They *both* came"; "The prince and the pauper are *both* his friends"; *pron.* "He is *both* rich and lucky"; *adv.* (966, note 2).

But. "I go, *but* I return"; *coör. conj.* Nobody should be sad *but* I. — *Shak.*; *conj.* (Supply *should be sad*.) This use of *but* is becoming obsolete, it now being considered a preposition in such constructions, and followed by the objective case. "There is *but* one God"; "I can *but* die"; *adv.* "All *but* him had gone"; *prep.* "She did nothing *but* sing"; *prep.* "There is no flock, however watched or tended, *But* one dead lamb is there"; *sub. conj.* "There is no fire-

side, howsoe'er defended, *But* has one vacant chair"; *rel. pron.* (369). "*But for* this," etc.; *part of prep.* "All *but* him have gone"; "She does nothing *but* sing"; *prep.* (896). "Not *but* that I might have gone"; *prep.* (918, 3). "*But for* this, he would have succeeded"; *prep.* "They are *but* children"; *adv. em.* (only). "I can *but* lament the result"; *prep.* (I n'am *but* a leude compilatour. — *Chaucer.*) "I can *but* try"; *prep.* ("I cannot do anything *but* try"; or, "I cannot do anything *but* I can try"; *conj.*) "The goat *butted* (*verb*) his head against the *but* (*noun*) of the tree."

By. "We went *by* the church"; *prep.* "We went *by*"; "Remain near *by*"; *adv.* "*By the way*, let me say," etc.; "*By the bye*, have you seen him lately?" *conj. phrase.*

Conjunctive Adverbs. The conjunctive adverb is frequently incorrectly defined as "connecting two clauses and modifying a word in each clause." The conjunctive adverb *modifies a word in its own clause (i.e. the clause that it introduces), and joins the clause to the word that the clause modifies.* Thus, in the sentence, "The tree lies where it fell," the adverb *where* modifies *fell*; and the clause *where it fell* modifies *lies*, to which it is joined by *where*. So, also, "I know where it lies," in which *know* is not modified adverbially.

Else. "Any one *else*"; "Nobody *else*"; *adj.* "How *else* can he go?" "Come [*or*] *else* I shall go"; *adv.*

Enough. "I have *enough*"; *noun.* "Men *enough*"; *adj.* "Old *enough*"; *adv.*

Errors of Speech. The commonest errors of speech consist of—

1. The use of wrong words or expressions; as, "Do *like* I did," for "Do as I did."

2. The use of unnecessary words; as, "I cannot go, I *don't* think," for "I think I cannot go."

3. The omission of necessary words; as, "Neither my friends nor (*my*) enemies could say more."

4. The wrong arrangement of words; as, "I *only* paid five dollars," for "I paid only five dollars."

Every. "*Every* person"; *adj.* "And *every* care"; *pron.* obsolete. "*Every* now and then"; *adj., now and then* nouns, or call the expression a phrase adverb.

Expletives. *It*, the preparatory pronoun (348, 2), and *there*, the adverb of position (819, 10), are frequently called *expletives*.

Factitive Predicate. This term is used by some grammarians to name the adjective or noun that follows the verbs *make*, *call*, etc., in such sentences as "He made the stick *straight*," "They called him a *traitor*." (An object along with a predicate word qualifying it is taken specially often by a verb that is used in a *factitive* sense; that is, in the sense of making or causing or bringing about something by means of the action which the verb signifies. — *W. D. Whitney*.) In this work a distinction is drawn between verbs like *make*, *believe*, etc. (272), in which the person or thing named by the noun following the verb *is not* made or believed, and verbs like *appoint*, *call*, etc. (171), in which the person or thing named by the noun following the verb *is* appointed or called. The sentence "He made the path straight" is ambiguous. It may mean that he straightened the path (which was already made), or that he made the path, and it was straight. To express the first meaning, the sentence should be disposed of as explained in Art. 272. The second meaning is brought out as indicated in Art. 170 and Art. 200.

Far. "A *far* country"; *adj.* "*Far* away"; *adv.*, mod. *away*. "*Far* from the crowd"; *adv.*, mod. the phrase. "Thus *far* shalt thou go"; *adv.* (*Thus*, *adv.*, mod. *far*.) "From *far* and near"; *nouns*.

Farewell. "A last *farewell*"; *noun*. "A *farewell* address"; *adj.* "*Farewell!*" *int*.

First. "She was *first*"; "She came *first*"; *adj.* "*First* advise him"; *adv.* "He did hear that sound *first*"; *noun*, in apposition with *he* if it means "He was the first to hear," etc. If it means "That sound was heard first," it is an *adverb*. "Two reasons; *first*," etc.; *adj.* "He must come, *first*, because," etc.; *adv.*

For. "He took it *for* (a thing) granted"; *prep.*

Full. "It is *full*"; "The *full* moon"; *adj.* "*Full* many a gem"; *adv.*

Gender. The words *uncle* and *aunt* are remotely connected; as also are *nephew* and *niece*, *lord* and *lady*, etc. *Countess* is the feminine of *count*, the French name for *earl*. *Man*, in Anglo-Saxon, was in the common gender; *woman* was "wife-man," or "weft-man," that is, the

man that weaves. *Girl* was originally in the common gender, being derived from a Saxon word signifying "a little churl." In Anglo-Saxon, *a* was a masculine suffix, and *e* a feminine suffix (*nefa*, *nefe* = nephew, niece).

Gerund. The term *gerund* is used by a number of authors to name verbal nouns in the participial form and participial verbals used as nouns: A *gerund* is a substantive formed from a verb by the suffix *-ing*; as, He escaped by crossing the river. — *Mason*. A *participle* may be called a verbal adjective; a *gerund* may be called a verbal noun. The gerund is formed like the imperfect participle, by adding *-ing* to the verb. Examples of *gerund*: *Walking* is a healthy exercise. I like *riding*. Tom is fond of *chopping* wood. — *Salmon*. The infinitive in *ing* is called by some the *gerund*. — *W. D. Whitney*. Bain's view is: "The *gerund* is not a separate form in English, but a peculiar application of the two infinitive forms, 'to write,' and 'writing.' When those have the sense of *purpose* or *intention*, they are called *gerunds*; 'I come *to write*,' 'I have work *to do*,' 'the course *to steer by*,' 'ready *for sailing*,' 'sharpened *for cutting*.'"

The infinitive in Anglo-Saxon was formed by adding a suffix to the verb. It was declined like a noun; as nom., *writ-an* (to write), dative, *writ-anne* (to write or for writing), etc. In time the case endings were dropped, and *to* remained as the "sign" of the infinitive. The suffix *an* changed to *en*, and finally to *ing*, and thus was formed the infinitive ending in *ing*: The present participle in *-ende* changed to *-ing*; and in English, noun, participle, adjective, and infinitive (*gerund*) mix. — *March*.

The term *gerund* is not needed in the treatment of infinitives and participles as presented in this work.

Grammar. 1. *Grammar* shows the logical structure of language. — *W. T. Harris*. 2. The English language, as made the subject of a *grammar*, means the English of the present day, as used by good speakers and writers; and English *grammar* is a description of the English language in this sense. — *W. D. Whitney*. 3. *Grammar* concerns the forms of words and their dependent relations in the sentence. — *Richard Grant White*. 4. By *Grammar* we do not

learn to speak, no, nor even to read and write; but we learn the relations of words to one another in the use of speech. — *Earle*.

Had. "He *had* better be careful." (He would have [find] it better to be careful.) "I *had* rather be a doorkeeper," etc. (*had*, 704; *be*, 896; *doorkeeper*, *s. p. n.*).

Half. "A *half* chest"; "Half a chest"; "Half the books"; *adj.* "Half dead"; *adv.*

Hard. "It is *hard*"; "Hard work"; *adj.* "She studies *hard*"; *adv.* "Hard by yon brook"; *adv.*, modifying *by brook*.

High. "How *high* it flies!" *adj.* "The firmament *on high*"; *ph. adj.* (815.) "From *on high*"; *noun*.

However. "However strong"; *adv.* "However, I shall not go"; *conj.*

Infinitives. "I am *to go*"; "He appears *to be* sick"; *vl. adj.* "I have *to go*"; *vl., d. o.* "He ordered the men *to go*" may mean "He gave orders to the men *to go*," or "He gave orders that the men should go."

Infinitives. The term *infinitive* means "unlimited," the words to which the term was originally applied not being limited to any particular person or number, as are ordinary verbs. It is applied by some grammarians to verbal nouns only, as "He desires *to go*," "Going is easy." When the term is thus limited to verbal nouns, there are said to be two infinitives: (1) one that is the same as the root of the verb, as, "I can *go*," "He desires *to go*" (the preposition *to* being used as its sign; 645); and (2) one that ends in *ing*; as, "He tried *going*." The first is called the *root infinitive*, and the second the *participial infinitive*. The participial infinitive is called by some grammarians the *gerund*. This explanation of the term *infinitive* shows the original use of the word, and may be of some assistance to the student when he begins the study of another language. It is believed, however, that a clear understanding of the use of the "infinitive" in the English of to-day is best obtained by the method of treatment presented in this book. (581, 5, note, etc.)

The following definition is a common one: An infinitive is a form of the verb that generally begins with *to*, and that expresses the act or state without predicating it. — *Kerl*.

In order. "*In order* to lessen the burden, he carried the bag on his shoulder"; *ph. adv.*, mod. *carried*. *To lessen*, *vl. adj.*, mod. *order*. Or, *in order to lessen*, *vl. adv.* Or, *in, prep.*, *order*, *noun*.

It. "*It is you I want*" (*It, i.e.* the person, whom I want, is you; 348, 1).

Let. "*Let me alone*"; *adj.*, 272. *Let up, on, down*, etc.; *adv.* "*Let come what will*" *what will (come)*; *sub. of come*. "*Let go*." "*Let (it) go*," or "*Let (your hold) go*."

Little. "*Little older*"; *adv.* "*A little older*"; *noun*. "*A little pudding*" = (a small pudding); *adj.* "*A little pudding*" = (a little of the pudding); *noun* used as *adj.*

Like. "*Like begets like*"; *noun*. "*I like honesty*"; *verb*. "*Another day like this*," etc.; "*He is like a fox*"; *adj.* "*It sings like a nightingale*"; *adv.*

Low. "*To become low*"; "*To fall low*"; *adj.* "*To lie low*"; *adj.* or *adv.* "*To speak low*"; "*To buy low*"; *adv.* (When the lowness is in the object *low* is an *adj.*; when it is in the action, *low* is an *adv.*)

Make. "*To make free with*"; *adj.* "*He made sure of it*" = He *made* (himself to be) sure of it; *adj.* "*They made much of her*"; *noun*. "*She was made much of*"; a kind of *compound verb*.

Methinks. (703, note.) In "*Methinks the lady doth protest too much*," the clause in italics is the subject.

Modifying elements. The modifying elements of a sentence (143) may be divided into *substantive elements* (10), *adjective elements*, and *adverbial elements*.

More. "*More money*"; *adj.* "*There is some more wine in the bottle*" (*adj.* = additional). "*The more part*" (*adj.* = greater). "*Say no more*"; *adj. pron.* "*Strive no more*"; *adv.*, or *a. o.* "*He more than hesitated*" (He (did) *more* than (he) hesitated, or *more than hesitated*); a *verb phrase*. "*It is more than good*" (than (it is) good, or *more than good*); an *adjective phrase*.

In "*some more pudding*," Abbott calls *more* an adverb = *besides*. Some *more* pudding = some pudding *more*.

Near. "*The near approach of day*"; "*It is near*"; "*It is near me*"; "*The man near me*"; *adj.* "*Remain near*"; "*Remain near me*"; *adv.* "*The ship nears the land*"; *verb*.

Nearly. "We went *nearly* through the cave"; *adv.*, modifying the phrase *through cave*. So also, *just* in "It was seen just below the falls"; *only* in "Some birds sing only in the evening," etc.

Some grammarians say that *nearly* and *just* modify the prepositions by which they are followed.

Needs. "His *needs* are great"; *noun*. "He *needs* me"; "He *needs* to go"; *verb*. "He must *needs* go"; *adv.*

No. "No person"; *adj.* "No more"; "No nearer"; *adv.*

Non-finite verbs and verbals. To distinguish between the non-finite and the verbal is sometimes very difficult, if not impossible—

1. Because the infinitive and participial forms may be used to express all the various shades of thought lying between direct predication and simple modification, and consequently many terms will be found on the border line between the two extremes.

2. Because many speakers and writers do not have a clear conception of the proper use of these flexible words, and consequently they are frequently used loosely or indefinitely, and not seldom wholly misused.

Once. "This *once*"; "For *once*"; *noun*.

Only. "The *only* man"; *adj.* "The man *only*"; "I sing *only*"; *adv.*

Participles. The term *participle* means "participating," the words to which the term was originally applied being adjectives and at the same time partaking of the nature of verbs. It is applied by some leading grammarians to verbal adjectives only; as, "He is *running*." When the term is thus limited to verbal adjectives, there are said to be two participles: (1) one that ends in *ing*; as, "He is *going*"; and (2) one that ends in *ed*, *t*, or that has no distinctive ending; as, "The man *seen* yesterday was my brother." The first is called the *present participle*, because it often denotes present time, and the second is called the *perfect participle* or the *passive participle*, because it usually denotes past time or a completed action. This explanation of the term *participle* shows the original use of the word, and may be of some assistance to the student when he begins the study of a foreign language. It is believed, however, that a clear understanding of the use of the *participle* in the English of to-day is best obtained by the method of treatment presented in this book. (581, 5, note, etc.)

In using definite verbals in the participial form (or present and perfect participles, as called by many grammarians), care must be taken that the nouns to which they refer are manifest. In other words, definite verbals should not be used indefinitely. (862, 864.) The following sentence illustrates a somewhat common error: "Attached to the brewery is a blacksmith's shop, thereby enabling repairs to be executed on the premises." Earle says of this sentence: "Here we see the present participle on the loose."

The following definition is a common one: A participle is a form of the verb that expresses the act or state without predicating it, and generally resembles an adjective. — *Kerl*.

Position. — The great importance of the position of words in English is strikingly seen by comparing the Latin "Johannes et Carolus Gulielmum audiverunt," with the same words in English. The Latin words can have but one meaning, no matter how they are arranged; but in English the words may be arranged to make six different statements: "John and Charles heard William"; "John and William heard Charles"; "Charles and William heard John"; "John heard Charles and William"; "Charles heard John and William"; "William heard John and Charles."

Potential mood. The potential mood can be dispensed with by regarding the auxiliaries as principal verbs in the indicative or the subjunctive mood, and the principal verbs as infinites, depending upon them. Thus, in "I can go," *can* may be said to be in the indicative mood, and *go* a verbal noun depending upon *can*. This method of disposing of "composite" verbs (or "verb phrases") would in most cases explain the original significance of the words that form them. It is the method suggested by some leading grammarians. But although most of the words of these groups retain to a certain extent their earlier meaning, and can be construed separately, the signification of the verb phrases taken as a whole usually differs from that of the individual words combined to form the phrase. It is therefore thought best, both for this reason and on account of its simplicity, to retain the potential mood. It must be remembered, however, that there are objections to its use, and that it can be dispensed with in the manner indicated above.

It may be added that many grammarians who omit the potential mood omit also to make proper disposition of the verb phrases that are clearly explained by the use of this mood: Certain forms of possibility are expressed by auxiliary modal verbs with the infinitive. They need separate discussion, and are conveniently called a potential mode. — *March* (“Anglo-Saxon Grammar”).

Properties. The number of properties of a part of speech is determined by the number of variations in form which it undergoes. Sometimes, however, a word varies in use but not in form; as, “one *sheep*,” “ten *sheep*”; “I saw *James*,” “*James* saw me”; “I *shall go*,” “we *shall go*,” etc. In such instances the property of a word is determined by its use. In other cases the property may be told by the form as well as the use. Thus *me* is always said to be in the objective case, *his* and *Henry’s* possessive, *I* nominative, etc. The failure to make the form correspond to the use gives rise to one of the chief classes of errors which it is within the province of the grammarian to correct.

Sometimes good usage sanctions a form which does not correspond to the variation in use, and then the name given to the property is determined by the variation in form; as, “*His* being an Englishman,” etc. Such constructions are generally explained by “special rules.”

Shall and will. Between *shall* and *will* there has been a long-sustained rivalry, which still continues and in which *will* is ever slowly gaining. — *Earle*.

So. “Do it *so*”; *adv. man.* “*So* tired”; *adv. deg.* “Is that *so*?” *adj.* “*So* come along”; *conj.* “A dollar or *so*”; *noun.* *So* is frequently used to represent a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. When thus used, it may be called an adverb used as a noun, adjective, or adverb, or simply an adverb.

That. “All *that* came”; “It was I *that* did it”; *rel. pron.* “*That* is mine”; “I know *that*”; *adj. pron.* “I know *that* man”; *adj.* “I know *that* I can go”; “He is wrong in *that* he did not go”; *sub. conj.* “I saw several; *that is*, six or eight”; “The method is wrong; *that is* to say, it will prove of no avail”; *cl. conj.* “We speak *that* we do know”; *conj. pron.,* used in the sense of *what*.

The. “*The* men”; *adj.* *The* (*conj. adv.*) more busy we are, *the* (*adv.*) more leisure we have. — *Hazlitt*.

Then. "I shall go *then*"; *adv.* "*Then* remain at home to-morrow"; *conj.*

Till. "Remain *till* to-morrow"; "*Till* then"; "*Till* after the storm subsides"; *prep.* "Remain *till* he comes"; *conj. adv.*

Twofold use of words. Some words have a twofold use, being modified as one part of speech and used in construction as another. Thus, in "A green stone building," *stone* is a noun used as an adjective. As a noun it is modified by the adjective *green*; as an adjective, it modifies the noun *building*. Other examples are found in "A hundred men" (756, note); "Last *Saturday* evening"; "Lower *California* gold"; "Cast *iron* railings," etc.

Verb phrase. A term applied by some grammarians to verbs that consist of more than one word; as, *shall go, was hurt, might have gone*, etc. It may be appropriately applied to such combinations of words as "*more than hesitated,*" "*was taken care of,*" "*was replied to,*" etc.

Strong and weak verbs. Verbs are sometimes classified according to the way in which their principal parts are formed into (1) verbs of the strong conjugation, and (2) verbs of the weak conjugation. Verbs of the strong conjugation form their past tense by changing the vowel sound of the root; as, *blow, blew; ride, rode; sink, sank; fight, fought*, etc. Verbs of the weak conjugation include all so-called regular verbs, and verbs that form their past tense by adding *ed* or *t* to the stem, the vowel taking the short sound in most cases; as, *creep, crept; feed, fed; buy, bought; lend, lent*, etc. This list also includes many verbs that do not change their form for the past tense; as, *cost, cut, hit, hurt, thrust*, etc. Regular verbs are also said to be verbs of the new conjugation. Many irregular verbs are verbs of the old conjugation.

Verbals. See *non-finite verbs and verbals*, page 322.

Very. "The *very* one"; *adj.* "*Very* good"; *adv.*

Weigh. "We *weighed* the package"; *tr. verb.* "It *weighed* three pounds"; *int. verb.* *Pounds, a. o.*

Well. "A clear *well*"; *noun.* "Is she *well*?" *adj.* "*Well* treated"; *adv.* "It *wells* out"; *verb.* "*Well*, let us go"; *adv.* used *ind.* or *int.* (845). "*Well! well!* Is it possible?" *int.*

What. "*What* am I?" *int. pron.* "*What* books has he?" *int. adj.* "*What* wonders I see!" *excl. adj.* "Return *what* you borrow";

conj. pron. "I know *what* books he has"; *conj. adj.* "*What* [partly] with threats and *what* with entreaty, I succeeded"; *adv.* "*What!* am I your slave?" *int.* *What* should I stay?—*Shak.*; *adv.* (= why). *What* you have spoke it may be so perchance.—*Shak.*; probably a *rel. pron.* (*ant., it*).

"Take that thine is." "Take *what* is thine." The regular expression formerly was "Take that *what* is thine." (Cf. AS. *Luke vi. 3*; "þæt hwæt Daved dyde" = that *what* David did.) In time the antecedent was dropped before *what*, and the clause introduced by it became a noun clause. It is not now good English to supply the antecedent: In some grammars *what* is called a compound relative. This is wrong and misleading. . . . *What* is not even equivalent to *that* *which*.—*Mason*. Frequently in using *what* there is an ellipsis: "*What* (does it matter) though I fail?" "*What* (does it matter) if he did?" "I tell thee *what* (I think)!"

Which. "The pen with *which* she wrote I prize"; *rel. pron.* "*Which* is it?" *int. pron.* "Tell me *which* it is;" *conj. pron.* "*Which* one is it?" *int. adj.* "Tell me *which* one it is;" *conj. adj.* "Do you know *which* is *which*?" The first *which* is a *conj. pron.* The word after the verb is a kind of indefinite pronoun, altogether peculiar.—*Kerl*.

While. "Remain a *while*"; "It is not worth *while*"; *noun.* "We *while* away the hour"; *verb.* "Listen *while* she sings"; *conj. adv.*

Who. "Do you know the lady *who* came?" *rel. pron.* "Do you know *who* came?" *conj. pron.* "*Who* came?" *int. pron.*

Worth. "Slow rises *worth*," etc.; *noun.* "Woe *worth* the day"; *verb.* (AS. *weorthan* = to become.) "It is *worth* a dollar"; "To reign is *worth* ambition"; *adj.* (806, 13).

Would. "He *would* go"; *aux. verb.* "I *would* he were here"; *prin. verb, tr.* "*Would* God I were away!" The meaning seems to be "I wish to God I were away," hence supply *I* and *to*.

Yesterday. "He came *yesterday*"; *a. o.* (See 819, 3, Rem. 3.) "His actions *yesterday* surprised us"; *a. o.* of the action word (*noun*) *actions*, or *adj.*, modifying *actions*. "*Yesterday* was Sunday"; *noun.* "Our *to-days* and *yesterdays*"; *noun.*

Yet. "*Yet* no one came"; *conj.* "No one has *yet* come"; *adv.*

DEBATES

1032. In the preparation of a debate, thesis, or other argumentative discourse, the following suggestions will be of service to the student :

1. Present the entire question. State the two sides to the question clearly and fairly.

2. State your position plainly.

3. State your arguments clearly, presenting facts and conclusions drawn from facts. Use apt illustrations. When you cite authorities, let them be trustworthy and well known. Present each argument separately. Arrange your arguments so as to produce the best impression. As a rule, the strongest arguments should be placed last.

4. State arguments that may be advanced by your opponents, and answer them.

5. Conclude with a brief summary of your arguments, showing their relation to each other and to the question under discussion.

6. Do not talk or write "against time." Many good three-minute speeches become extremely poor when they are stretched out to ten minutes.

EXERCISE

1033. *Let the teacher appoint four or more pupils to debate each of the following resolutions :*

Resolved, That public amusements are beneficial.

Resolved, That the length of the school term should be — months.

Resolved, That city life is preferable to country life.

Select questions of current interest for debate.

**MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS AND
PARSING**

1034. 1. Call imperfection what thou fanciest such.
2. Fall he that must, and live the rest.

3. Triumphal Arch, that fill'st the sky
 When storms prepare to part,
 I ask not proud Philosophy
 To teach me what thou art. — *Campbell*.

4. He that is slow to anger is better than the mighty;
and he that ruleth his spirit, than he that taketh a city.
— *Prov. xvi. 32*.

5. His praise, ye winds that from four quarters blow,
 Breathe soft or loud; and wave your tops, ye pines,
 With every plant, in sign of worship wave.
 Fountains, and ye that warble as ye flow
 Melodious murmurs, warbling, tune his praise. — *Milton*.

6. Whatsoever ye shall ask in my name, that will I do,
that the Father may be glorified in the Son. — *John xiv. 13*.

7. Whither, midst falling dew,
 While glow the heavens with the last steps of day,
 Far, through their rosy depths, dost thou pursue
 Thy solitary way?
 Vainly the fowler's eye
 Might mark thy distant flight to do thee wrong,
 As, darkly painted on the crimson sky,
 Thy figure floats along.
 Seek'st thou the plashy brink
 Of weedy lake, or marge of river wide,
 Or where the rocking billows rise and sink
 On the chafed ocean side?

There is a Power whose care
Teaches thy way along that pathless coast, —
The desert and illimitable air, —
Lone wandering, but not lost. — *Bryant.*

8. And Paul said, I would to God, that not only thou, but also all that hear me this day, were both almost, and altogether such as I am, except these bonds. — *Acts xxvi. 29.*

9. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
And all the air a solemn stillness holds,
Save where the beetle wheels his droning flight,
And drowsy tinklings lull the distant folds;
Save that, from yonder ivy-mantled tower,
The moping owl does to the moon complain
Of such as, wand'ring near her secret bower,
Molest her ancient, solitary reign. — *Gray.*

10. I know not whether an orator ought not to be thought happiest at that period of his life when, sequestered from the world, devoted to retired study, unmolested by envy, and remote from strife, he has placed his reputation in a harbor of safety, experiencing while yet alive that respect which is more commonly offered after death, and observing how his character will be regarded by posterity. — *Quintilian.*

11. Sweet are the uses of adversity,
Which, like the toad, ugly and venomous,
Wears yet a precious jewel in his head;
And this our life, exempt from public haunt,
Finds tongues in trees, books in the running brooks,
Sermons in stones, and good in everything. — *Shak.*

12. Whoso suffers nothing more than the evil which obviously follows naturally from his own misbehavior, is much less likely to think himself wrongly treated than if

he suffers an evil artificially inflicted on him; and this will be true of children as of men. — *Spencer*.

13. So live, that when thy summons comes to join
The innumerable caravan, which moves
To that mysterious realm, where each shall take
His chamber in the silent halls of death,
Thou go not, like the quarry slave at night,
Scourged to his dungeon, but, sustained and soothed
By an unfaltering trust, approach thy grave
Like one who wraps the drapery of his couch
About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams. — *Bryant*.

14. Be thou faithful unto death, and I will give thee a crown of life. — *Rev. ii. 10.* 15. He giveth his beloved sleep. — *Ps. cxxvii. 2.*

16. Through all the compass of the notes it ran,
The diapason closing full in man. — *Dryden*.

17. The army retreated during the night, the officers taking with them only their side arms and horses, and the soldiers leaving everything behind but their arms and ammunition.

18. Who does his best his circumstance allows,
Does well, acts nobly — angels could no more. — *Young*.

19. It was evident that he would be king who should conquer. — *Livy*.

20. As in a building
Stone rests on stone, and wanting the foundation
All would be wanting, so in human life
Each action rests on the foregoing event,
That made it possible, but is forgotten
And buried in the earth. — *Longfellow*.

21. In consequence the authors of these dissensions accused the generals of having defeated their plan; and

the Arcadians and the Achæans began to hold meetings together, Callimachus, the Parrhasian, and Lycon, the Archæan, being mostly at their head. — *Xen.*

22. Nobler is a limited command
Given by the love of all your native land,
Than a successive title, long and dark,
Drawn from the moldy rolls of Noah's ark. — *Dryden.*

23. How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds makes
ill deeds done !

24. Labor with what zeal we will,
Something still remains undone,
Something unaccomplished still
Waits the rising of the sun. — *Longfellow.*

25. Whatever the consequence may be, I shall speak
the truth.

26. The nimble lie
Is like the second hand upon a clock ;
We see it fly ; while the hour hand of truth
Seems to stand still, and yet it moves unseen,
And wins, at last, for the clock will not strike
Till it has reached the goal. — *Longfellow.*

27. A thought came like a full-blown rose, flushing his
brow. — *Keats.* 28. Whom therefore ye ignorantly wor-
ship, him declare I unto you. — *Acts xvii. 23.* 29. To
pooh-pooh what we are never likely to possess is won-
derfully easy.

30. No one with books e'er needs to be alone ;
More powerful than the monarch on his throne,
He has in stately tomes at his command
The wise and great of every age and land. — *L.*

31. A good name is rather to be chosen than great
riches, and loving favor rather than silver and gold. —

Prov. xxii. 1. 32. The object was, to make it appear as if in whatever was to follow her own life had been aimed at as well as her husband's. — *Froude.*

33. Patience is more oft the exercise
Of saints, the trial of their fortitude,
Making them each his own deliverer,
And victor over all
That tyranny or fortune can inflict. — *Milton.*

34. If it were done when 'tis done, then it were well it were done quickly. — *Shak.* 35. I believe that if when what the crew endured became known, the captain could have been found, he would have been mobbed by the excited sailors.

36. Our father's God! from out whose hand
The centuries fall like grains of sand,
We meet to-day, united, free,
And loyal to our land and Thee,
To thank Thee for the era done,
And trust Thee for the opening one. — *Whittier.*

37. It is in every way creditable to handle the yardstick and to measure tape; the only discredit consists in having a soul whose range of thought is as short as the stick and as narrow as the tape. — *Horace Mann.*

38. The more rapid the flow of the water the coarser the detritus it can transport; and as a stream slackens its rate the coarser material falls to the bottom, leaving only the finer to be carried on. — *Dana.*

39. Many books,
Wise men have said, are wearisome; who reads
Incessantly, and to his reading brings not
A spirit and judgment equal or superior,
Uncertain and unsettled still remains —
Deep versed in books, and shallow in himself. — *Milton.*

40. The fall of kings,
 The rage of nations, and the crash of states,
 Move not the man, who, from the world escap'd,
 In still retreats, and flowery solitudes,
 To Nature's voice attends, from month to month,
 And day to day, through the revolving year ;
 Admiring, sees her in her every shape ;
 Feels all her sweet emotions at his heart ;
 Takes what she liberal gives, nor thinks of more. — *Thomson.*

41. Not to know me argues yourselves unknown. —
Milton. 42. It is better to desire than to enjoy, to
 love than to be loved. — *Hazlitt.*

43. How tremble the trees as they burst on my view !
 How moans the old house as the wind passes through,
 In sadness, in sorrow, with sighing !
 How chill is the desolate, shadowy day !
 How fast fly the clouds, in their armor of gray,
 To herald that Autumn is dying !

 Bright dreams of the month that has just fitted by,
 Of the warm, mellow days 'neath the quivering sky
 Of an Indian Summer's glory ;
 Woods dropping their nuts, and the fields filled with corn —
 Is Autumn so soon of his strength to be shorn ?
 And is his head bowed and hoary ?

 Yes, Autumn is dying ; ere long o'er his grave
 The blustering storms of stern Winter will rave,
 And snows will his resting place cover !
 Sad news do ye bring, gray clouds, as ye fly !
 And ye winds ! For ye tell me that I, too, must die
 A day — and a grave ; and 'tis over ! — *L.*

44. There once lived in Greece a very wise man whose
 name was Socrates. Young men from all parts of the
 land went to him to learn wisdom from him ; and he said

so many pleasant things, and said them in so delightful a way, that no one ever grew tired of listening to him. One summer he built himself a house, but it was so small that his neighbors wondered how he could be content with it. "What is the reason," said they, "that you, who are so great a man, should build such a little box as this for your dwelling house?" "Indeed, there may be little reason," said he; "but, small as the place is, I shall think myself happy if I can fill even it with true friends."

45. If any man think it a small matter, or of mean concernment, to bridle his tongue, he is much mistaken; for it is a point to be silent when occasion requires, and better than to speak, though never so well. — *Plutarch*.

46. I like the lad who, when his father thought
To clip his morning nap by hackneyed phrase
Of vagrant worm by early songster caught,
Cried, "Served him right! — it's not at all surprising;
The worm was punished, sir, for early rising." — *Saxe*.

47. A man may see and hear, and read and learn, whatever he pleases, and as much as he pleases; he will never know anything of it except that which he has thought over, that which by thinking he has made the property of his mind. — *Pestalozzi*.

48. Though the ancient feudal systems were not, strictly speaking, confederacies, yet they partook of the nature of that species of association. There was a common head, chieftain, or sovereign, whose authority extended over the whole nation; and a number of subordinate vassals or feudatories, who had large portions of land allotted to them, and numerous trains of inferior vassals or retainers, who occupied and cultivated that land upon the tenure of fealty

or obedience to the persons of whom they held it. Each principal vassal was a kind of sovereign within his particular demesnes. The consequences of this situation were a continual opposition to the authority of the sovereign, and frequent wars between the great barons or chief feudatories themselves. The power of the head of the nation was commonly too weak either to preserve the public peace, or to protect the people against the oppressions of their immediate lords. This period of European affairs is emphatically styled by historians the times of feudal anarchy.

When the sovereign happened to be a man of vigorous and warlike temper and of superior abilities, he would acquire a personal weight and influence which answered for the time the purposes of a more regular authority. But in general the power of the barons triumphed over that of the prince, and in many instances his dominion was entirely thrown off, and the great fiefs were erected into independent principalities or States. — *Alexander Hamilton*.

49. If there be good in that I wrought,
 Thy hand compelled it, Master, Thine ;
 Where I have failed to meet Thy thought,
 I know, through Thee, the blame is mine. — *Kipling*.

50. Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels, and have not charity, I am become as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal. And though I have the gift of prophecy, and understand all mysteries, and all knowledge ; and though I have all faith, so that I could remove mountains, and have not charity, I am nothing. And though I bestow all my goods to feed the poor, and though I give my body to be burned, and have not charity, it profiteth me nothing. Charity suffereth long, and is kind ;

charity envieth not; charity vaunteth not itself, is not puffed up, doth not behave itself unseemly, seeketh not her own, is not easily provoked, thinketh no evil; rejoiceth not in iniquity, but rejoiceth in the truth; beareth all things, believeth all things, hopeth all things, endureth all things. Charity never faileth: but whether there be prophecies, they shall fail; whether there be tongues, they shall cease; whether there be knowledge, it shall vanish away. For we know in part, and we prophesy in part. But when that which is perfect is come, then that which is in part shall be done away. When I was a child, I spake as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child: but when I became a man, I put away childish things. For now we see through a glass, darkly; but then face to face: now I know in part; but then shall I know even as also I am known. And now abideth faith, hope, charity, these three; but the greatest of these is charity.—
1 Cor. 13.

DIALOGUES AND SHORT STORIES

1035. A dialogue may be written in either one of two forms:

1. It may consist wholly of conversation, like a play or drama.

2. It may be written as part of an article, and combined with narrative and description, like a magazine story. A composition of this kind which contains a complete narrative that ends effectively, is usually called a short story.

1036. As a school exercise, **dialogues** may be written in two ways:

1. Each character may be assigned to a different pupil.

When this is done, the pupils representing the different characters will meet, and each one will write his part of the dialogue.

2. The dialogue may be written by a single pupil, with explanations, remarks, etc., such as are found in magazine stories and novels.

1037. The following suggestions will be of service :

1. Make your characters "true to nature."

Browning has been criticised for making his characters, even his children, talk like himself.

2. Study a drama of Shakspeare's, other good plays, etc.
3. Read two or three magazine stories carefully, noticing the form of composition, etc.

EXERCISE

1038. *The following subjects for dialogues or short stories are suggested:*

1. Going to Boarding School.

Characters : Mrs. Jones, who is inclined to send her daughter away to school ; Mary, her daughter, who is anxious to go ; Aunt Esther, a maiden lady, opposed to schools.

2. The Next Election.

Characters : J. L. L., a Republican ; W. U. H., a Democrat ; E. K. M., an Independent.

3. Country Life *vs.* City Life.
4. Theater Going.
5. Traveling *vs.* Reading.
6. The Best Magazine.
7. Dialogue between a Dog and a Cat.
8. Conversation between a Boy and his Grandfather.
9. The Owl and the Bat.
10. My Schoolbooks' Quarrel.

BUSINESS PAPERS¹

1039. The following business papers are among those in common use: *receipts, invoices, accounts, promissory notes, duebills, drafts, checks, and orders.*

Simple forms of these business papers will be given.

1040.

Receipts

<p><i>Philadelphia, October 21, 1876.</i></p> <p><i>Received of W. S. Lundor, Ten $\frac{25}{100}$ Dollars, in full of all accounts to date.</i></p> <p style="text-align: right;"><i>Harriet Martineau.</i></p> <p>$\\$10\frac{25}{100}$.</p>
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A receipt should always be given for money paid or deposited, and generally on the delivery of merchandise or other articles of value. Losses and lawsuits may thus frequently be prevented.

The foregoing form is used when an account is paid in full. For the words "in full of accounts," use "on account," if payment is made on an unsettled account; "in full of all demands," if *all* claims are paid, etc.

A convenient size for a receipt, promissory note, draft, check, etc., is *three* by *seven* or *eight* inches.

The payment of part of a promissory note (1043) should be receipted on the back or the face of the note.

Invoices and accounts may be receipted as shown in 1042.

EXERCISE

- Copy the foregoing receipt.
- Write a receipt, showing that Samuel J. Tilden has paid you $\$125\frac{50}{100}$ on account.
- If you pay your account in full at William Cake's bakery ($\$63\frac{75}{100}$), what form of receipt should he give you?

¹ For a full treatment of the subject of Business Papers, see the author's "Practical Bookkeeping."

1041.

Invoices

Wilkes-Barre, Pa.,

December 31, 1879.

Mrs. B. A. Housekeeper,

Bought of Coffey & Tiegh, Grocers.

5	lbs. Crushed Sugar,	@ .08		40
6	“ Coffee,	@ .15		90
4	“ Tea,	@ .82	3	28
3	gals. N. O. Sirup,	@ .75	2	25
1	bbl. Apples,		2	25
5	doz. Eggs,	@ .11		55
			9	63

EXERCISE

1. Copy the foregoing invoice.

2. James Reader bought, July 6, 1877, of Johnson & Boswell, 465 Market Street, Philadelphia, 1 copy of Bryant's Poems, Household ed., \$ 1.75; 1 copy of "A Fool's Errand," \$ 1.25; 1 copy of "Around the World in Eighty Days," \$ 1.75. Write the receipted invoice sent to James Reader.

1042.

Accounts

Bird-in-Hand, Pa.,

April 2, 1885.

Mr. S. T. Keeper,

To Henry Carpenter, Dr.

	For Lumber used in Repairing Storeroom,		6	50
	4 Locks, # 84,	@ .65	2	60
	4 Mort. Knob Latches, # 0,	@ .60	2	40
	Screws, Nails, etc.,		1	75
	7 days' Labor,	@ 1.50	10	50
			23	75
	Received Payment,			
	Henry Carpenter.			

EXERCISE

1. Copy the foregoing account.
2. John McMellen works at carting stones 11 days for Elias Brown, Augusta, Ga.; wages for himself, \$ 1.10 a day; for his horse and cart, \$ 1 a day. Make out the bill, dated 3d April, 1879.
3. Henry Bash, in account with L. Fairwell, Highland, O. February 1, 1882, To 12 Tumblers, @ .10; 12 gals. Molasses, @ .50; 20 lbs. Crushed Sugar, @ .15. February 16, To 8 lbs. Sugar, @ .15; 3 bbls. Salt, @ \$ 1.16. March 6, To 3 lbs. Tea, @ .90. Make out the account, dated March 30.

1043.**Promissory Notes**\$1000⁰⁰/₁₀₀.

Pittsburg, Pa., April 16, 1879.

Sixty days after date, I promise to pay to
J. A. Froude, or order, One Thousand Dollars,
 without defalcation, value received.

Thomas Carlyle.

The words "without defalcation" are not necessary in some States. If the note is to draw interest from date, the words "with interest" must be inserted.

In the foregoing note, *J. A. Froude* is the payee and *Thomas Carlyle* is the maker. The words "or order" make the note *negotiable*. It may be transferred to a third person by indorsement. The two kinds of indorsement are here shown, the first being an indorsement *in full*, the second an indorsement *in blank*:

*Pay to the order of
 Edward Irving,*

J. A. Froude.

Edward Irving.

EXERCISE

1. Copy the foregoing note and indorsements.
2. Write a promissory note, with yourself as maker, in favor of Roger Williams, for \$ 350, payable in 60 days.
3. Boyd & Adams, Lancaster, Pa., gave Myers, Brown & Co., on the 1st of April, 1886, a promissory note for \$875 $\frac{1}{100}$, payable at the Farmers' National Bank, in 3 months, with interest at 6%. Write the note. Write an indorsement in full, transferring the note to Lukens & Co. Write an indorsement in blank made by Lukens & Co., when the note is deposited at bank for collection.

1044.**Duebills**\$28 $\frac{50}{100}$ *Xenia, O., August 27, 1879.*

*Due Wm. S. Hough, or order, Twenty-eight $\frac{50}{100}$
Dollars in Merchandise from my store.*

William Mercer.

EXERCISE

1. Copy the foregoing duebill.
2. Write a duebill for \$ 10, in favor of Henry Landis.

1045.**Drafts**\$645 $\frac{75}{100}$ *Seranton, Pa., April 1, 1886.*

*At ten days' sight, pay to D. M. Sensenig, or
order, at the Williamsport National Bank, Six
Hundred and Forty-five $\frac{75}{100}$ Dollars, value re-
ceived, and charge to the account of*

To A. D. Hower,

G. W. Phillips.

Williamsport, Pa.

The signer of a draft is the *drawer*, the person ordered to make the payment is the *drawee*, and the person to whom the money is to be paid is the *payee*. Drafts drawn at sight must be paid when presented to the drawee. The foregoing draft is due ten days after A. D. Hower "accepts" it, *i.e.* writes across the face the word "Accepted," with the date and his signature.

EXERCISE

1. Copy the foregoing draft. "Accept" it.
2. Write a sight draft with yourself as drawer, Jonathan Edwards as payee, and Thomas Clapp, New Haven, Conn., as drawee, for \$ 300. Write an indorsement in full, by which the payee transfers the bill to Cotton Mather. Write an indorsement in blank.
3. O. Palmer, of Pittsburg, Pa., draws on J. B. McJunkin, Butler, Pa., for \$ 850 $\frac{75}{100}$. The draft is dated January 19, 1878, and is drawn in favor of James Bredin, at ten days' sight, payable at the Butler National Bank. It is accepted January 23, 1878. It is transferred to E. McJunkin by an indorsement in full, and by him indorsed in blank and presented at bank. Write the draft, acceptance, and indorsements.

1046.

Checks

<p><i>Laneaster, Pa., April 14, 1889.</i></p> <p><i>Farmers' National Bank of Laneaster,</i> <i>Pay Reynolds & Moore, or order,</i> <i>Two Hundred and Fifty Dollars.</i></p> <p style="text-align: right;"><i>M. Brosius.</i></p> <p>$\\$250\frac{00}{100}$</p>

EXERCISE

1. Copy the foregoing check.
2. Write a check for \$ 200 in favor of J. Willis Westlake, drawn on Reed, McGrann & Co., Bankers, Lancaster, Pa. Indorse it in full, in favor of Edward Brooks. Indorse it in blank.

3. If, on April 1, 1876, you pay Joel Miller \$75 $\frac{80}{100}$ by check on the Strasburg National Bank, how should the check be written? If Joel Miller transfers the check to William H. Bachman, by an indorsement in full, and William H. Bachman presents it for payment at the bank, and receives the money for it, what indorsements must be put on it?

1047.

Orders

505 Broadway, N. Y.

October 21, 1886.

Samuel Weller,

Treasurer Mutual Fire Insurance Co.,

Pay to Oliver Twist, or order, Fifty-eight Dollars, in full for Salary to this date.

David Copperfield, Sec. M. F. I. C.

\$58 $\frac{00}{100}$.

EXERCISE

1. Copy the foregoing order.
2. On January 2, 1880, Carbon & Co., of Carbondale, Pa., gave Mrs. C. Cooper an order on Custer & Conard for 3 tons of Coal. Write the order.
3. Christian Eiseman sold the State Normal School, Millersville, Pa., November 20, 1878, 20 doz. Eggs, @ .12 $\frac{1}{2}$, and 28 lbs. Butter, @ .18, receiving for the sale an order given by A. M. Frantz, Chairman of the Household Committee, on J. W. Lansinger, Treasurer. Write the order.

1048.

MISCELLANEOUS SUBJECTS

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Electricity. | 5. What we Wear. |
| 2. Railroads. | 6. Elections. |
| 3. Life at Sea. | 7. London and New York. |
| 4. Printing. | 8. Paris. |

9. Learning a Trade.
10. The Sewing Machine.
11. Bubbles.
12. Ghosts.
13. The Life of a Lazy Man.
14. The Trials of a Street-car Conductor.
15. The Engineer's Account of the Last Railroad Accident.
16. A Lost Child's Story.
17. An Evening Walk with a Grumbler.
18. An Old Man's Advice.
19. How the Soldier Lost his Arm.
20. The Autobiography of an Old Horse.
21. The Biography of a Rose.
22. The Reminiscences of an Old Tree.
23. A Sheaf of Wheat.
24. A Telephone with a Memory.
25. A Faded Shawl's Tale.
26. The Old Musket's Story.
27. What shall a Young Man Do?
28. What shall a Young Woman Do?
29. Visit to a Battle Field.
30. Woman in Politics.
31. Brains in Business.
32. Planting Trees.
33. A Thousand a Year.
34. I Will.
35. Signs.
36. His First Mustache.
37. A Stitch in Time Saves Nine.
38. A Country Store.
39. Does the World Owe me a Living?
40. A Christmas Story.
41. Robinson Crusoe.
42. Slang Phrases.
43. A Letter from the Man in the Moon.
44. Escape from a Burning Hotel.
45. Search for a Lost Child.
46. Growth by Conquest.
47. Home Education.
48. The Smoketown Lyceum.
49. Gossip.
50. Socrates.
51. The Boy who always Forgot.
52. A Trip across the Continent.
53. A Trip across the Continent in 1950.
54. Christmas in the Year 2000.
55. The Human Countenance.
56. Homes without Hands.
57. Literary Culture.
58. On the Use of Tobacco.
59. What is Good Society?
60. Influence of the Newspaper.
61. Evil Communications Corrupt Good Manners.
62. The Art of Conversation.
63. Cheap Books.
64. Do Manners Make the Man?
65. Were the Old Times the Best Times?
66. A Hundred Years Ago.
67. A Hundred Years to Come.

APPENDIX

A

SUMMARY OF RULES OF CONSTRUCTION

[FOR REFERENCE]

Rule 1. A noun or a pronoun used as the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case. (456.)

Rule 2. A noun or a pronoun used independently is in the nominative case. (464.)

Special Rule 1. A pronoun used independently is sometimes in the objective case. (465.)

Rule 3. A noun or a pronoun used absolutely is in the nominative case. (467.)

Special Rule 2. A noun or a pronoun used absolutely is sometimes in the possessive case. (474.)

Rule 4. A noun or a pronoun used to modify another by denoting possession is in the possessive case. (472.)

Rule 5. A noun or a pronoun used as the direct object of a transitive verb or verbal is in the objective case. (493.)

Special Rule 3. A noun or a pronoun used as the cognate object of a transitive verb or verbal is in the objective case. (495.)

Rule 6. A noun or a pronoun used as the indirect object of a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or an adverb, is in the objective case. (496.)

Rule 7. A noun or a pronoun used as the adverbial object of a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or an adverb, is in the objective case. (497.)

Rule 8. A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a preposition is in the objective case. (498.)

Rule 9. A noun or a pronoun used in predication or apposition with another in the nominative or the objective case, agrees with it in case. (509.)

Rule 10. A noun or a pronoun used in predication or apposition with another in the possessive case, is in the nominative case. (510.)

Special Rule 4. A noun or a pronoun used in apposition with another in the possessive case, sometimes agrees with it in case. (511.)

Special Rule 5. A noun or a pronoun used in apposition to modify a word or a combination of words not used as a noun, is in the nominative case. (512.)

Rule 11. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, person, and number. (524.)

Special Rule 6. A pronoun having two or more antecedents representing the same person or thing, is in the singular number; if they represent different persons or things, it is in the plural number. If the antecedents differ in person, it prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third. If one is in the masculine or the feminine gender, and the other is in the neuter, the gender of the pronoun is indefinite. (525.)

Rule 12. A subordinate conjunctive is used to introduce a clause, and join it to the word that the clause modifies. (537.)

Special Rule 7. A subordinate conjunctive is sometimes used simply to introduce a clause. (538.)

Rule 13. A finite verb agrees with its subject in person and number. (704.)

Special Rule 8. A finite verb having two or more subjects joined by "and" and differing in person, prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third. (705.)

Special Rule 9. A finite verb having two or more subjects joined by "or" or "nor," agrees with the subject next the verb in person and number. (706.)

Special Rule 10. A finite verb having two or more subjects joined by "and" and not modified by "no," "each," "every," or a similar adjective, is in the plural number if they denote different persons or things. (707.)

Special Rule 11. A finite verb having two or more singular subjects representing the same person or thing, or modified by "no," "each," "every," or a similar adjective, is in the singular number. (708.)

Rule 14. A non-finite verb does not change its form to agree with its subject in person and number. (709.)

Rule 15. An adjective is used to modify a noun or a pronoun. (802.)

Special Rule 12. An adjective is sometimes used absolutely, as the complement of a verbal. (803.)

Rule 16. An adverb is used to modify a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or another adverb. (842.)

Special Rule 13. An adverb is sometimes used to modify a noun, a pronoun, a phrase, a clause, or a sentence. (843.)

Special Rule 14. The adverb *there* is sometimes used simply to change the relative position of the subject and predicate of a proposition. (844.)

Special Rule 15. An adverb is sometimes used independently. (845.)

Special Rule 16. A verbal is sometimes used independently. (905.)

Rule 17. A preposition is used to introduce a phrase, and join it to the word that the phrase modifies. (932.)

Special Rule 17. A preposition is sometimes used simply to introduce a phrase. (933.)

Rule 18. A coördinate conjunction is used to join sentences or parts of a sentence that have the same construction. (968.)

Special Rule 18. A coördinate conjunction is sometimes used simply to introduce a sentence. (969.)

Special Rule 19. The coördinate conjunction *or* is sometimes used to join an appositive noun to the word that it modifies. (970.)

Special Rule 20. The subordinate conjunction *as* is sometimes used to introduce a word or a phrase. (973.)

Rule 19. A responsive is used independently. (983.)

Rule 20. An interjection is used independently. (992.)

B

ABBREVIATIONS IN COMMON USE

TITLES

Mr., Mister.

Messrs., Messieurs (Fr. pl.).

Esq., Esquire.

D.D., Doctor of Divinity.

LL.D., Doctor of Laws.

Dr., Doctor.

M.D., Doctor of Medicine.

D.D.S., Doctor of Dental Surgery.

Ph.D., Doctor of Philosophy.

M.S., Master of Science.

B.A., Bachelor of Arts.

A.M. or *M.A.*, Master of Arts.

Mrs. (pro. Misses), Mistress.

Bp., Bishop.

Messrs., Gentlemen.

Mme., Madame.

Mlle, Mademoiselle.

Hon., Honorable.

Rev., Reverend.

Pres., President.

Gov., Governor.

Prof., Professor.

Gen., General.

Col., Colonel.

Maj., Major.

Capt., Captain.

Lt. or *Lieut.*, Lieutenant.

P.M., Postmaster.

Sr., Senior.

Jr., Junior.

Gen., General.

Supt., Superintendent.

COMMON NAMES

<i>Benj.</i> , Benjamin.	<i>Geo.</i> , George.	<i>Jos.</i> , Joseph.
<i>Chas.</i> , Charles.	<i>Jas.</i> , James.	<i>Thos.</i> , Thomas
<i>Edw.</i> , Edward.	<i>Jno.</i> , John.	<i>Wm.</i> , William.

CHRONOLOGICAL ABBREVIATIONS

<i>H.</i> , Hour.	<i>Sat.</i> , Saturday.	<i>Dec</i> , December
<i>Min.</i> , Minute.	<i>Jan.</i> , January.	<i>Mo.</i> , Month.
<i>Sec.</i> , Second.	<i>Feb.</i> , February.	<i>Ult.</i> , Ultimo.
<i>A.M.</i> , Forenoon.	<i>Mar.</i> , March.	<i>Inst.</i> , the Present Month.
<i>P.M.</i> , Afternoon.	<i>Apr.</i> , April.	<i>Prox.</i> , Next Month.
<i>M.</i> , Noon.	—, May.	<i>Yr.</i> , Year.
<i>D.</i> , Day; <i>ds.</i> , days.	<i>Je.</i> , June.	<i>Cent.</i> , Century.
<i>Sun.</i> , Sunday.	<i>Jy.</i> , July.	<i>B.C.</i> , Before Christ.
<i>Mon.</i> , Monday.	<i>Aug.</i> , August.	<i>A.D.</i> , In the Year of Our Lord.
<i>Tues</i> , Tuesday.	<i>Sept.</i> , September.	
<i>Thurs.</i> , Thursday.	<i>Oct.</i> , October.	
<i>Fri.</i> , Friday.	<i>Nov.</i> , November.	

MISCELLANEOUS ABBREVIATIONS

<i>Acct.</i> , Account.	<i>Co.</i> , County.
<i>Amt.</i> , Amount.	<i>Ex.</i> , Example.
<i>Ans.</i> , Answer.	<i>F.</i> or <i>Fahr.</i> , Fahrenheit (ther- mometer).
<i>Bal.</i> , Balance.	<i>E.G.</i> (Exempli Gratia), for ex- ample.
<i>Co.</i> , Company.	<i>Pro Tem.</i> (Pro tempore), for the time being.
<i>C.O.D.</i> , Collect on Delivery.	<i>Ms.</i> , Manuscript.
<i>Cr.</i> , Credit, Creditor.	<i>Mss.</i> , Manuscripts.
<i>Dr.</i> , Debit, Debtor.	<i>Mt.</i> , Mount.
<i>Doz.</i> , Dozen.	<i>P.</i> , Page.
<i>Ea.</i> , Each.	<i>Pp.</i> , Pages.
<i>Recd.</i> , Received.	<i>R.R.</i> , Railroad.
<i>Anon.</i> , Anonymous.	<i>Rt. Rev.</i> , Right Reverend.
@, At.	<i>Do.</i> (Ditto), the same.
<i>Ave.</i> , Avenue.	
<i>Per Cent.</i> (Per Centum), by the hundred.	

C

ETYMOLOGY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS

[L. = Latin; Gr. = Greek; Fr. = French.]

- Abridged**, Fr. *abrégé*, to shorten, from L. *abbreviare*, from *ab*, from, and *breviare*, to shorten, from *brevis*, short.
- Active**, L. *activus*, from *agere*, to put in motion.
- Adjective**, L. *adjectivum*, from *ad*, to, and *jacere*, to throw.
- Adjunct**, L. *adjunctus*, from *ad* and *jungere*, to join.
- Adverb**, L. *adverbium*, from *ad* and *verbum*, word, verb.
- Analysis**, Gr. *analysis*, from *ana*, again, and *luin*, to loose.
- Antecedent**, L. *antecedens*, from *ante*, before, and *cedere*, to go.
- Apposition**, L. *appositio*, from *ad* and *ponere*, to place.
- Auxiliary**, L. *auxiliaris*, from *auxilium*, help, aid.
- Case**, L. *casus*, from *cadere*, to fall, happen.
- Clause**, L. *clausa*, from *claudere*, to shut.
- Comparison**, L. *comparatio*, from *con*, together or with, and *par*, equal.
- Complement**, L. *complementum*, from *con* and *plere*, to fill.
- Complete**, L. *con* and *plere*.
- Complex**, L. *complexus*, from *con* and *plectere*, to twist.
- Compound**, L. *componere*, from *con* and *ponere*, to put.
- Conjugation**, L. *conjugatio*, from *con* and *jugare*, to join.
- Conjunction**, L. *conjunctio*, from *con* and *jungere*, to join.
- Conjunctive**, L. *conjunctivus*, from *con* and *jungere*.
- Coördinate**, L. *con* and *ordinatus*, from *ordinare*, to regulate.
- Declension**, L. *declinatio*, from *de*, down, and *clinare*, to lean.
- Ellipsis**, Gr. *elleipsis*, from *en*, in, and *leipein*, to leave.
- Etymology**, Gr. *etymon*, the true sense of a word, and *logos*, discourse.
- Feminine**, L. *femininus*, from *femina*, woman.
- Finite**, L. *finitus*, p. p. of *finire*, to limit.
- Gender**, L. *genus*, *generis*, race, kind.
- Grammar**, Gr. *gramma*, letter.
- Imperative**, L. *imperativus*, from *imperare*, to command.
- Indicative**, L. *indicativus*, from *indicare*, to proclaim.
- Infinitive**, L. *infinitivus*, from *in*, not, and *finire*.
- Inflection**, L. *inflexio*, from *in* and *flectere*, to bend.
- Interjection**, L. *interjectio*, from *inter*, between, and *jacere*.
- Intransitive**, L. *intransitivus*, from *in* and *transitivus*.
- Language**, L. *lingua*, the tongue.
- Masculine**, L. *masculinus*, from *masculus*, male.
- Mood**, Fr. *mode*, from L. *modus*, manner.
- Neuter**, L. *neuter*, neither.
- Nominative**, L. *nominativus*, from *nomen*, name.
- Noun**, L. *nomen*, name.
- Number**, Fr. *nombre*, from L. *numerus*, number.
- Object**, L. *objectus*, from *ob*, against, and *jacere*.
- Objective**, L. *objectivus*. See *Object*.
- Parse**, L. *pars*, a part.
- Participle**, L. *participium*, from *pars* and *capere*, to take.

<p>Passive, L. <i>passivus</i>, from <i>pati</i>, <i>passus</i>, to suffer.</p> <p>Person, L. <i>persona</i>, a person.</p> <p>Phrase, Gr. <i>phrasis</i>, from <i>phrasein</i>, to speak.</p> <p>Pleonasm, Gr. <i>pleonasmos</i>, from <i>pleonazein</i>, to be more than enough.</p> <p>Plural, L. <i>pluralis</i>, from <i>plus</i>, <i>pluris</i>, more.</p> <p>Possessive, L. <i>possessivus</i>, from <i>possidere</i>, to possess.</p> <p>Potential, L. <i>potentialis</i>, from <i>potens</i>, p. p. of <i>posse</i>, to be able.</p> <p>Predicate, L. <i>prædicatum</i>, from <i>præ</i>, and <i>dicare</i>, to proclaim.</p> <p>Preposition, L. <i>præpositio</i>, from <i>præ</i>, and <i>ponere</i>, to put.</p> <p>Pronoun, L. <i>pronomen</i>, from <i>pro</i> and <i>nomen</i>.</p> <p>Proposition, L. <i>propositio</i>, from <i>pro</i>, and <i>ponere</i>.</p> <p>Regular, L. <i>regula</i>, a rule.</p> <p>Relative, L. <i>relativus</i>, from <i>re</i>, again, and <i>ferre</i>, <i>latum</i>, to bear.</p>	<p>Responsive, L. <i>responsivus</i>, from <i>re</i> and <i>spondere</i>, to promise.</p> <p>Sentence, L. <i>sententia</i>, from <i>sentire</i>, to think.</p> <p>Simple, L. <i>simplex</i>, from <i>semel</i>, once, and <i>plicare</i>, to fold.</p> <p>Subject, L. <i>subjectus</i>, from <i>sub</i>, under, and <i>jacere</i>.</p> <p>Subjective, L. <i>subjectivus</i>. See <i>Subject</i>.</p> <p>Subjunctive, L. <i>subjunctivus</i>, from <i>sub</i> and <i>jungere</i>.</p> <p>Subordinate, L. <i>sub</i> and <i>ordinatus</i>.</p> <p>Syntax, Gr. <i>suntaxis</i>, from <i>sun</i>, with, and <i>tassein</i>, to put in order.</p> <p>Synthesis, Gr. <i>sunthesis</i>, from <i>sun</i>, and <i>tithenai</i>, to place.</p> <p>Tense, Fr. <i>temps</i>, from L. <i>tempus</i>, time.</p> <p>Transitive, L. <i>transitivus</i>, from <i>trans</i>, across, over, and <i>ire</i>, <i>itum</i>, to go.</p> <p>Verb, L. <i>verbum</i>, a word.</p> <p>Verbal, L. <i>verbalis</i>, from <i>verbum</i>.</p> <p>Voice, Fr. <i>voix</i>, from L. <i>vox</i>, <i>vocis</i>, voice.</p>
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D

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMPOSITION CLASSES

I. COPYING COMPOSITIONS

The composition should first be written on slate or paper, and all the errors the writer can find in it should be corrected. It may then be copied according to the following directions:

1. **Paper**.—Use letter paper (size, about 8 by 10 inches), if convenient.

2. **Subject**.—Write the subject in the middle of the first line. Every important word in the subject should begin with a capital letter.

Leave a blank line below the subject.

3. **Margin.** — Leave a margin of an inch on the left-hand side of each page if letter paper be used, or three quarters of an inch, if note paper be used.

In writing letters, leave only a very narrow margin.

4. **Paragraphing.** — Begin each paragraph an inch, or three quarters of an inch, to the right of the marginal line.

5. **Signature.** — Write the signature on the next line below the end of the composition, near the right-hand edge of the paper.

6. **Place and Date.** — Write the name of the place and the date on the next line below the signature, near the left-hand edge.

7. **Folding.** — Fold the paper so that the width when folded will be equal to one third of the length of the sheet.

8. **Indorsement.** — Write the name across the upper end, on the upper fold, an inch from the top. Write the subject about half an inch below the name, and the date about half an inch below the subject.

The indorsement will be on the back of the upper left-hand corner of the composition when it is opened.

General Direction. — Use ink, if possible. Prepare your compositions with neatness and accuracy. If the composition is more than three pages long, take a new sheet, or half sheet.

2. CORRECTING COMPOSITIONS

The teacher should examine every composition carefully, and indicate in the margin the position and nature of the mistakes made. The pupil should then correct the errors with lead pencil, and return the composition to the teacher for a second examination. Any mark not understood by the pupil should be explained to him. If too many mistakes are made, the composition should be rewritten. Occasionally, pupils may be allowed to correct one another's compositions.

Care should be taken by the teacher —

1. Not to criticise compositions too severely. He should remember that the great object to be attained by the pupil is the *free written expression of thought*.

2. To see that the pupils understand the meaning of the criticisms made by him.

SYSTEM OF MARKING

The following abbreviations will be found of service in correcting compositions. They should be written in the margin opposite the

error. A line may be drawn under the word that is wrong, though it is frequently best simply to indicate the error in the margin, and allow the pupil to find it for himself. General corrections or comments may be made below the composition.

O, error in Orthography.

G, error in Grammar.

C, error in Capital Letter.

P, error in Punctuation.

W, error in use of Word; *Ww*, wrong word; *Wo*, word omitted; *Wr*, word repeated, etc.

S, error in Sentence; *Sl*, sentence too long; *Ss*, sentence too short, etc.

F, error in Figure.

Par, error in Paragraphing.

E, error (nature of error not indicated).

?, to be inquired about.

Other abbreviations may be used, or part of the foregoing may be omitted, at the discretion of the teacher.

3. READING COMPOSITIONS

When compositions have been corrected, they may be read before the class or school. As a rule, each pupil should read his own composition. Criticisms from the other pupils as to the matter of the composition, manner of reading, etc., may be given.

The following devices may add interest to the composition exercises :

1. Intersperse the exercises with recitations,¹ dialogues, readings carefully selected from standard authors, etc.

2. The school may be resolved into a literary society, with regular officers, and a programme of exercises, consisting of orations, essays, recitations, answering of referred questions, a debate, giving "sentiments,"² critic's remarks, etc. Let the teacher take part in the exercises. The officers may be elected by ballot, if preferred. The teacher should, however, assign the duties to be performed by the pupils.

1. Care must be taken to prevent the recitations given by pupils from being unrefined. The temptation to recite a "humorous" selection sometimes leads pupils to choose articles not entirely appropriate in language or thought.

2. A "sentiment" should be a selection of poetry or prose from a standard author. It should teach a moral lesson. *Let the teacher frequently write upon the blackboard a choice selection to be copied and committed to memory by the pupils.*

E

BRIEF HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The different languages of the world have been arranged into groups, called families. Each family consists of a number of members that bear a resemblance to one another in many of their words. The English language belongs to the Teutonic group of the Indo-European or Aryan family, and many words and sounds in English greatly resemble those of other branches of this family.

The Aryans lived in Central Asia, and from that territory large bodies of them wandered into Persia, India, Greece, and Italy. Other bodies occupied nearly all the remaining countries of Europe. A band of this people, now called Kelts, settled in the British Isles, Gaul, and part of Spain. The Kelts were followed by the Teutons, the ancestors of the English and Germans, and they in turn were followed by the Slavs, from whom the Russians and other nations are descended.

In the fifth century the Saxons, Angles, and Jutes invaded Britain, and drove the British or Keltic inhabitants into Wales and other remote places. These Teutonic tribes settled in the lands they had won. The name Angle belonged at first to one tribe of the invaders, but it was gradually applied to all the invaders, so far at least as to name the island England (Angle-land), and the language English. They were called for a time Anglo-Saxons, and this name is now applied to the English language of that period. It should be borne in mind that Anglo-Saxon is simply the oldest form of our own language.

Anglo-Saxon was a more highly inflected language than the English of to-day. For example, the noun *day* was declined as follows :

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
<i>Nom.</i>	dæg	dagás
<i>Gen.</i>	dægés	dagá
<i>Dat.</i>	dægê	dagum
<i>Acc.</i>	dæg	dagas
<i>Voc.</i>	dæg	dagas
<i>Inst.</i>	dægê	dagum

Nouns had six cases and four declensions ; adjectives were declined, and had three genders ; pronouns had more forms, and some pronouns had three numbers, and so on. Many of these inflections were

dropped after the Norman Conquest, auxiliary words, prepositions, etc., taking their places. Modern English, however, is by no means an uninflected language. The following sentences will illustrate more fully the way in which English has changed in the last thousand years :

ANGLO-SAXON. A.D. 890	WYCKLIFFE'S TRANSLATION A.D. 1382	AUTHORIZED VERSION A.D. 1611
Fæder ure thu the eart in heofen-um; Si thin nama gehalgod; to-be-come thin rice; geweorhte thin willa on eorthan swa swa on heofenum.	Our fadir that art in hevenes; hallowid be thi name; thy kingdom come to; be thy will don in erthe as in hevene.	Our father which art in heaven; hallowed be thy name; thy kingdom come; thy will be done in earth as [it is] in heaven.

Most of the words that have been introduced into the English language from foreign languages have come from the Keltic, the Scandinavian, Latin, Greek, and Norman-French. Our language has also naturalized a few words from other sources.

Not many words were taken directly from the Kelts by their Anglo-Saxon conquerors. Those that were taken consist mainly of geographical names; as, *Avon, Don, Kent, Pen, Wight*, etc., and of names referring to articles connected with common affairs; as, *basket, breeches, clout, cradle, crock, darn, mop, pillow, rug*, etc.

The Norman-French belonged to the Keltic race, and naturally adopted many Keltic words, some of which were introduced into English by them. Among these words are: *bag, barrel, basin, basket, bonnet, bucket, button, car, cart, gown, pot, ribbon, rogue*, etc.

The Scandinavians made a number of incursions into England, and established themselves in the eastern part of the island. As a consequence a number of Danish or Scandinavian terms found their way into English. Among the words thus introduced are: *cake, call, fellow, scold, sly*, and such endings as *by*, meaning town (as in *Derby*, etc.), *ey*, meaning island (as in *Orkney*), etc.

The Norman Conquest (1066) naturally introduced a number of words into Anglo-Saxon. Norman-French was made the language of the country, and schools taught it. French words, however, were introduced very slowly, until the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.

In 1362 an act of Parliament directed that all pleadings in courts should be in English. This act caused English to be used by those familiar with Norman-French, and brought a larger number of Norman-French words into the language. A few French military terms were introduced in the eighteenth century.

Latin words were introduced into Britain at different periods.

First Period (A.D. 43-426). — A few words came from the Romans who invaded the island, and were adopted by the Angles and Saxons from the Britains, *e.g.* from *castra*, Gloucester, Chester, etc., Stratford (*strata*), Lincoln (*colonia*), etc.

Second Period (596-1200). — The introduction of Christianity brought with it a number of religious terms, *e.g.* *altar, bishop, candle, preach, priest, mass*, and a few other terms; *e.g.* *camel, fig, pound, ounce, inch*, etc.

Third Period (1200-1400). — A large number of Latin words were introduced through the Norman-French. Most of the words in English which relate to law, war, and hunting were introduced in this way. During this period the many grammatical inflections of old English dropped out of the language, prepositions and other words taking their places. A few of the words introduced during this period are: *sovereign, scepter, throne, royalty, homage, prince, duke, chancellor, treasurer, palace, castle, hall*, etc.

What can you infer concerning the relative condition of the Norman-French and Anglo-Saxons from studying the following words?

Norman-French: *palace, castle*; Anglo-Saxon: *house, home, hearth*; NF.: *table*; AS.: *board*; NF.: *beef*; AS.: *ox, steer, cow*; NF.: *mutton*; AS.: *sheep*.

Fourth Period (1500-1600). — The revival of the study of Latin and Greek brought into English many words taken directly from these languages. Some of these words have changed their original meaning, as *influence, extravagant*, etc., but many have undergone but little alteration. A few of the words introduced during this period are: *common, envy, malice, virtue, steady, justice, pity, mercy, compassion, profit, commodity, color, grace, favor, acceptance*, etc.

Greek words have also found their way into our language, but in much smaller numbers than Latin. To this language we are indebted for a great many scientific terms; as, *botany, physics, ethics, music, didactic, logic*, etc.

Nearly every language has contributed to modern English. The following lists show the origin of many common words:

American: *canoe, hammock, maize, potato, skunk, squaw, tobacco, tomahawk, wigwam*, etc.

Arabic: *admiral, alchemy, alkali, alcohol, alcove, almanac, amulet, arsenal, artichoke, assassin, atlas, azure, bazaar, chemistry, cotton, cipher, elixir, gazelle, giraffe, shrub, sirup, sofa, talisman, tariff, zenith, zero*.

Chinese: *nankeen, satin, tea*.

Dutch: *block, boom, boor, cruise, loiter, ogle, ravel, ruffle, scamper, schooner, sloop, stiver, yacht*.

French: *Aid-de-camp, attaché, au fait, belle, bivouac, belles-lettres, billet-doux, blasé, bouquet, brochure, blonde, brusque, coup, début, débris, depot, éclat, élite, ennui, etiquette, façade, foible, fricassee, gout, omelet, naïve, penchant, nonchalance, outre, passé, personnel, prestige, programme, protégé, renaissance, soirée, trousseau*.

German: *landgrave, loafer, waltz, cobalt, nickel, quartz, zinc*.

Hebrew: *abbot, amen, cherub, jubilee, Sabbath, seraph*.

Hindu: *calico, chintz, jungle, boot, muslin, nabob, rice, rum, sugar*.

Italian: *balustrade, bandil, bust, canto, carnival, charlatan, ditto, folio, gazette, grotto, motto, portico, stanza, stiletto, studio, ter.or, umbrella, volcano*, etc.

Malay: *bantam, orang-outang, rattan, veranda, gingham (Java)*.

Persian: *caravan, chess, dervish, emerald, indigo, lilac, orange, pasha, sash, shawl, turban*.

Portuguese: *caste, commodore, palaver, porcelain*, etc.

Spanish: *alligator, armada, cargo, cigar, desperado, embargo, flotilla, gala, mosquito, tornado*, etc.

Turkish: *divan, fakir*, etc.

The historical development of the English language is divided by writers into five or six periods, somewhat as follows :

	KOCH	SKRAT	ABBOTT
450-1100	Old Anglo-Saxon	Anglo-Saxon	"Synthetic Period"
1100-1250	Late Anglo-Saxon	Late Anglo-Saxon	"Period of Confusion"
1250-1350	Old English	Early English	"Analytical Period"
1350-1500	Middle English	Middle English	"Synthetical Period"
1500-1600		Tudor English	"Period of 'License'"
1600- —	Modern English	Modern English	"Period of Settlement"

Opinions differ with respect to the proportion of pure English words in our language to-day. Morris states that "words of classical origin are calculated to be about twice as numerous as pure English words." Salmon says, "It has been estimated that, taking all the words in the dictionary, sixty out of every hundred are of native origin, thirty of Latin, five of Greek, while the remaining five come from some of the many other languages whence we have taken scattered words."

The percentage of pure English used in certain books (counting each word as often as it is used) is said to be :

St. John, ch. 1, 4, 17, 96%; Shakspeare's "Othello," Act V., 89%; Milton's "Paradise Lost," bk. VI., 80%; Tennyson's "In Memoriam," first twenty poems, 89%; Longfellow's "Miles Standish," 87%.

It must be remembered that while modern English has borrowed a great many words from other languages, its grammar is not borrowed. English grammar is now a grammar of modern English, and not Latin or Greek. It is largely controlled by the grammar of Anglo-Saxon, but it should nevertheless be regarded as a grammar of English as it is used to-day by the best writers. English is a growing language, and consequently cannot altogether be bound by grammatical rules. A German writer (Mætzner) says: "English has preserved from its Anglo-Saxon stage the suffixes that it still possesses in nouns and pronouns; the conjugation of its verbs; the articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and numerals; the comparative and superlative suffixes of adjectives, and the formation of adverbs; the flexibility and variety which it has in the formation of compounds; the most important part of the suffixes and prefixes by which derivatives are formed; the predominant principles of accentuation; and the compactness and straightforwardness of the syntactical arrangement of its periods. To French we owe a considerable modification of the sounds of the language, the suppression of the sound of *l* before other consonants, such as *f*, *v*, *k*, *m*, etc.; the softening or disuse of the hard, guttural sounds of *h* and *gh*, the change of hard *c* into *ch*, and the use of *e* mute at the end of words; the introduction of the sibilant sounds of *j*, *g*, *ch*, and *c*; the use of the letter *z*, and the consonantal sound of *v*, and a great deal of change and confusion in the vowel sounds. French influence assisted in the recognition of *s* as the general sign of the plural in nouns. To French we also owe a considerable number of the suffixes and prefixes by which derivatives are formed, and are probably indebted for our deliverance from that stiff and involved arrangement of sentences under which modern German still labors."

Specimens of English at various stages of its growth may be found in any unabridged dictionary. The student is also referred to the dictionary for a detailed explanation of inflectional changes, etc., in the language as it progressed from the oldest Anglo-Saxon to the virile language used by the most progressive peoples of the world.



F

PREFIXES, SUFFIXES, AND ROOTS

PREFIXES

PREFIXES OF ANGLO-SAXON ORIGIN

A (on, in, to, at); as, *afoot*, *abed*.

Be (over); as, *bedew*.

En, em, in, im (to, into, to put into);
as, *engrave*, *enchant*.

Mis (wrong); as, *unbelief*.

Out (beyond or more than); as, *outrun*.

Un (the reverse of not); as, *unbind*,
unholy.

With (from, against); as, *withstand*.

PREFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN

A, ab, abs (away, from); as, *avert*,
abduct.

Ar, a, ac, al, an, ap, as, at (to); as,
adhere, *ascend*, *attract*.

Ante (before); as, *antecedent*.

Bene (well); as, *benediction*.

Bi (twice); as, *bisect*.

Circum (around); as, *circumference*.

Con, co, col, com, cor (together, with);
as, *confer*, *collect*.

Contra (against); as, *contradict*.

De (down, from, off); as, *deduce*.

Dis, di, dif (apart); as, *dissect*.

Ex, e, ef (out of); as, *extract*, *eject*.

Extra (beyond); as, *extraordinary*.

In, il, im, is (into, before verbs and
nouns); as, *invade*, *illuminate*.

In, il, im, is (not, before adjectives and
nouns); as, *inaction*, *illegal*.

Inter (between, among); as, *intercede*.

Intro (in, into, within); as, *introduce*.

Ob, oc, of, op (against, before); as,
obstruct, *oppose*.

Per (through); as, *perfect*.

Pro (for, out); as, *pronoun*, *protract*.

Re, red (back, again); as, *recede*,
redeem.

Retro (back); as, *retrograde*.

Se (aside, apart); as, *secede*.

Semi (half); as, *semiannual*.

Sine (without); as, *sinecure*.

Sub, suc, suf, sug, sup, sus (under); as,
submerge, *suppress*.

Super, sur, fr (above); as, *supersede*,
survive.

Trans, tra (beyond, over); as, *transport*,
tradition.

Ultra (beyond); as, *ultramundane*.

PREFIXES OF GREEK ORIGIN

A, an (not, without); as, *apathy*.
Ambi (both, double); as, *ambidexter*.
Ana (up, through); as, *analysis*.
Anti (against); as, *antipathy*.
Cata (down, over); as, *catastrophe*.
Dia (through); as, *diameter*.
En, em (in, on, at); as, *emphasis*.
Epi, ep (upon); as, *epidemic*.
Ex, ec (out of); as, *exodus*.

Hyper (above, over); as, *hypercritical*.
Hypo, hyp (under); as, *hypothesis*.
Meta, met (after, beyond); as, *metaphysics*.
Para, par (beside); as, *parallel*.
Peri (round); as, *perimeter*.
Syn, sy, syl, sym (together, with); as, *synthesis, sympathy*.

SUFFIXES

SUFFIXES OF ANGLO-SAXON ORIGIN

D (passive); as, *deed, loved*.
Dom (condition); as, *freedom*.
En (causative, diminutive, made of); as, *hasten, kitten, wooden*.
Er, ar, or (one that, instrument); as, *speaker, writer*.

Ful (full of); as, *mindful*.
Less (free from, without); as, *worthless*.
Let, et (little, young); as, *brooklet*.
Ling (little, young); as, *gosling*.
Ly (like); as, *suddenly*.
Some (full of, making); as, *quarrelsome*.

SUFFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN

Able, ible, ble (that may be, worthy of); as, *attainable, laudable*.
Acy (-ness, state of being); as, *accuracy*.
Age (-ing, state of being, act of); as, *bondage*.
Al (of, pertaining to); as, *manual*.
An, ean, ian, aue (in adjectives, of, pertaining to; in nouns, one who); as, *republican, European*.
Ance, ancy, ence, ency (act of, state of being); as, *acceptance*.
Ant, ent (in nouns, one that; in adjectives, -ing); as, *assistant, pendent*.
Ary (in nouns, one that; in adjectives, of, pertaining to); as, *library, epistolary*.
Ate (in nouns, office, one that; in adjectives, having, -ed; in verbs, to make, to give, to put); as, *legate, fortunate, incarcerate*.

Dom (place in which dominion is exercised, rank, quality); as, *kingdom, wisdom*.
Eous (consisting of, like); as, *igneous*.
Fy (to make); as, *fortify*.
Ile (of, like, pertaining to); as, *juvenile*.
Ine (one that); as, *marine*.
Ion (act of, -ing, state of being); as, *invention*.
Ive (in nouns, one that; in adjectives, having power); as, *captive, active*.
Ment (act of, -ing, state of being); as, *accomplishment*.
Momy (state of being, that which); as, *matrimony*.
Or (one, that, -er, act of, -ing); as, *factor*.
Ous (full of, consisting of, like); as, *curious*.
Tude, ude (-ness); as, *altitude*.

SUFFIXES OF GREEK ORIGIN

Ac (of, pertaining to); as, *elegiac*.

Etic (causing, -ing); as, *pathetic*.

Ic (one that); as, *critic*.

Ism (state of being, -ing); as, *barbarism*.

Ist (one that); as, *artist*.

Y (in nouns, state of being; in adjectives, full of, consisting of, like); as, *anarchy*.

ROOTS

GREEK ROOTS

Agon, a combat.

Astron, a star.

Autos, one's self.

Basis, the base.

Bios, life.

Cardia, the heart.

Character, a mark.

Chronos, time.

Dis, *di*, two.

Duo, two.

Helios, the sun.

Hex, six.

Historia, history.

Hora, an hour.

Hydor, water.

Logos, a word, reason, science.

Mater, *Matros*, mother.

Metron, a measure.

Monos, one, alone.

Octo, eight.

Orthos, right, straight.

Pater, *patros*, father.

Pathos, feeling.

Phos, *photos*, fire, light.

Poly, many.

Schola, school.

Tetra, four.

Theos, a god.

Tonos, a sound, a stretching.

Typos, a type.

LATIN ROOTS

Acer, sharp.

Ager, field.

Altus, high, deep.

Amare, to love.

Amplus, large.

Anima, breath.

Annus, year.

Aqua, water.

Arbor, tree.

Artus, joint.

Audire, to hear.

Aurum, gold.

Brevis, short.

Cadere, to fall.

Caedere, to cut.

Canere, to sing.

Capere, to take.

Caput, head.

Cedere, to go, to yield.

Celer, quick.

Centum, hundred.

Circum, round.

Clinare, to bend, to lean.

Corona, crown.

Corpus, body.

Credere, to believe.

Currere, *cursum*, to run.

Dens, tooth.

Dicere, *dictum*, to say.

Digitus, finger.

Dominus, master.

Ducere, *ductum*, to lead.

Facere, to make, to do.
Ferre, to bear.
Fides, faith.
Finis, end.
Fluere, fluxum, to flow.
Forma, form.
Fortis, strong.
Frangere, fractum, to break.
Frater, brother.
Gerere, gestum, to bear, to perform.
Grandis, large.
Gratia, grace.
Habere, to have.
Horrere, to shudder.
Judex, judge.
Jungere, junctum, to join.
Jurare, to swear.
Lapis, stone.
Latus, side.
Legere, lectum, to gather.
Liber, free.
Lingua, tongue.
Litera, letter.
Locus, place.
Loqui, to speak.
Magnus, great.
Manere, mansum, to remain.
Manus, hand.
Mater, mother.
Mederi, to heal.
Medius, middle.
Mens, mentis, mind.
Mittere, missum, to send.
Mons, mountain.
Mors, mortis, death.
Movere, motum, to move.
Nasci, natus sum, to be born.
Navis, ship.
Noscere, to know.
Novus, new.
Numerus, number.
Octo, eight.
Oculus, eye.
Omnis, all.
Orbis, circle.
Par, equal.
Parere, to bring forth, prepare.

Pars, part.
Pater, father.
Patria, country.
Pax, pacis, peace.
Pellere, to drive.
Pellere, to hang.
Pes, pedis, foot.
Petere, petitum, to ask, seek.
Pingere, pictum, to paint.
Placere, to please.
Plicare, to fold.
Pondus, weight.
Ponere, positum, to place.
Portare, to carry.
Post, after.
Prehendere, to grasp.
Primus, first.
Pungere, punctum, to prick.
Qualis, of which kind.
Quantus, how great.
Quartus, fourth.
Queri, to complain.
Radius, ray.
Radix, root.
Ratio, reckoning.
Rogare, to ask.
Rumpere, ruptum, to break.
Sanctus, holy.
Satis, enough.
Scire, to know.
Scribere, scriptum, to write.
Secare, sectum, to cut.
Sentire, to feel, think.
Sequi, secutus, to follow.
Servus, slave.
Sistere, to stop, stand.
Sol, sun.
Solidus, solid.
Solus, alone.
Solvere, solutum, to loosen.
Sonus, sound.
Specere, spectum, to look.
Spirare, to breathe.
Struere, structum, to pile up.
Suadere, to advise.
Sumere, sumptum, to take.
Tangere, tactum, to touch.

Tegere, tectum, to cover.
Tempus, time.
Tendere, tensum, to stretch.
Tenere, tentum, to hold.
Terra, earth.
Trahere, tractum, to draw.
Unda, wave.
Unus, one.
Uti, usus, to use.
Valere, to be strong.
Vehere, vectum, to carry.
Venire, ventum, to come.

Verbum, word.
Vertere, versum, to turn.
Verus, true.
Videre, visum, to see.
Vir, man.
Vivere, victum, to live.
Vocare, to call.
Volo, I will; *velle*, to will.
Volvere, volutum, to roll.
Votare, votum, to vow.
Vulgus, common people.

Roots are frequently called *stems*; and the word *root* is sometimes restricted to certain primitive forms of speech from which words in related languages are derived.

Use the foregoing table (Appendix F) to teach pupils the etymology of words they find in their text-books. Place lists of words on the blackboard, to be analyzed into their component elements; as, *abduction*; *ab*, away, *ducere*, to lead, *ion*, the act of, etc. Let pupils occasionally see how many words they can form from a given root; as, *incline*, *declension*, etc., from *clinare*. The table can also be used in other ways.

G

COURSE OF READING

English grammar has no superior among the common school branches as a means of mental discipline; but it cannot take the place of a course of reading for general culture. Every pupil who uses this book should read a number of the best works of the best authors. Let the teacher ascertain what books can be obtained by his pupils, and select from those books the ones that will be most beneficial to the pupils. The teacher should also read to the school selections from standard authors, and lead the pupils to appreciate their beauty. The study of words — their history, their etymology, their figurative as well as literal use — is both interesting and profitable. Do not lose sight of the fact that nothing can take the place of good literature in a course of study.

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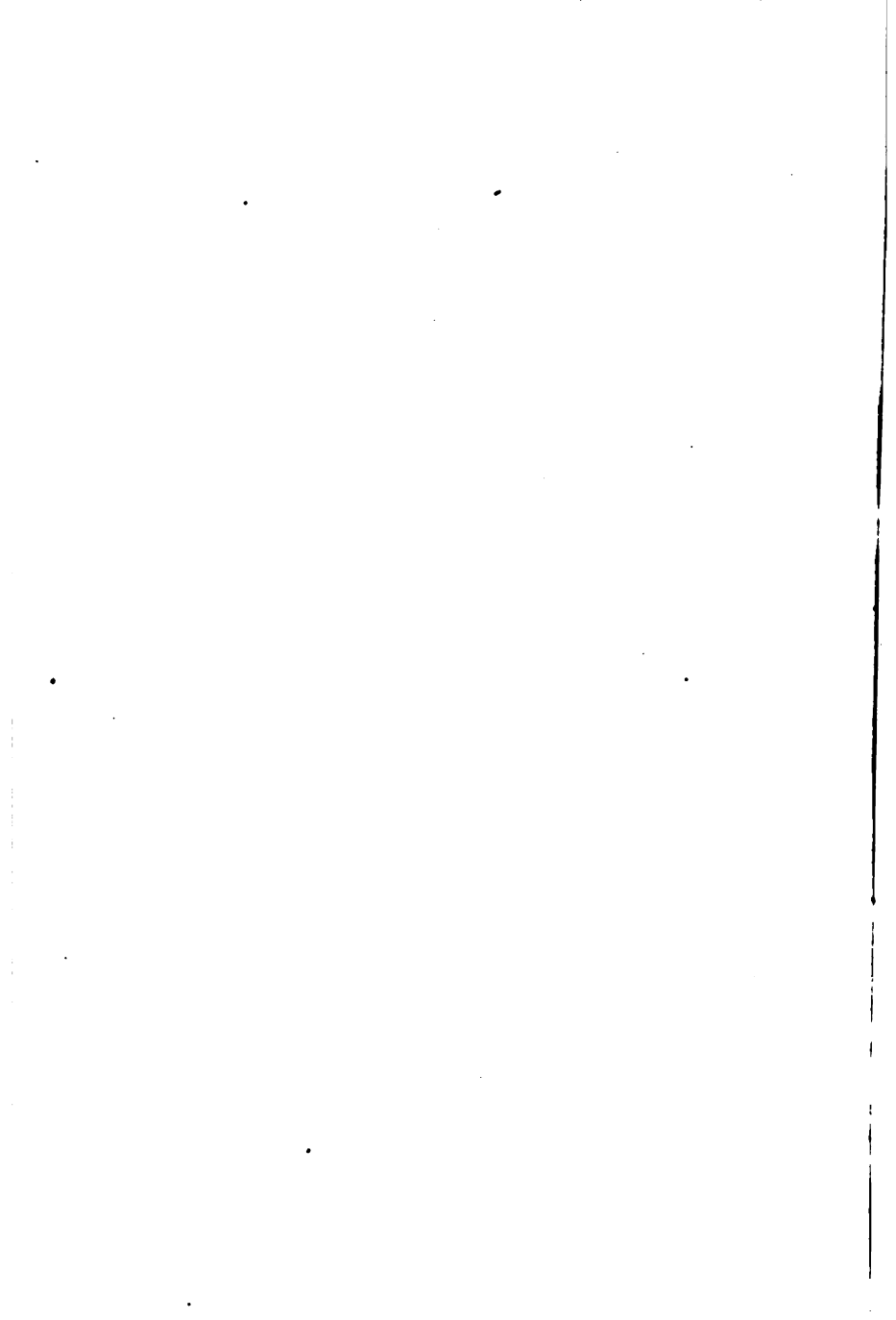
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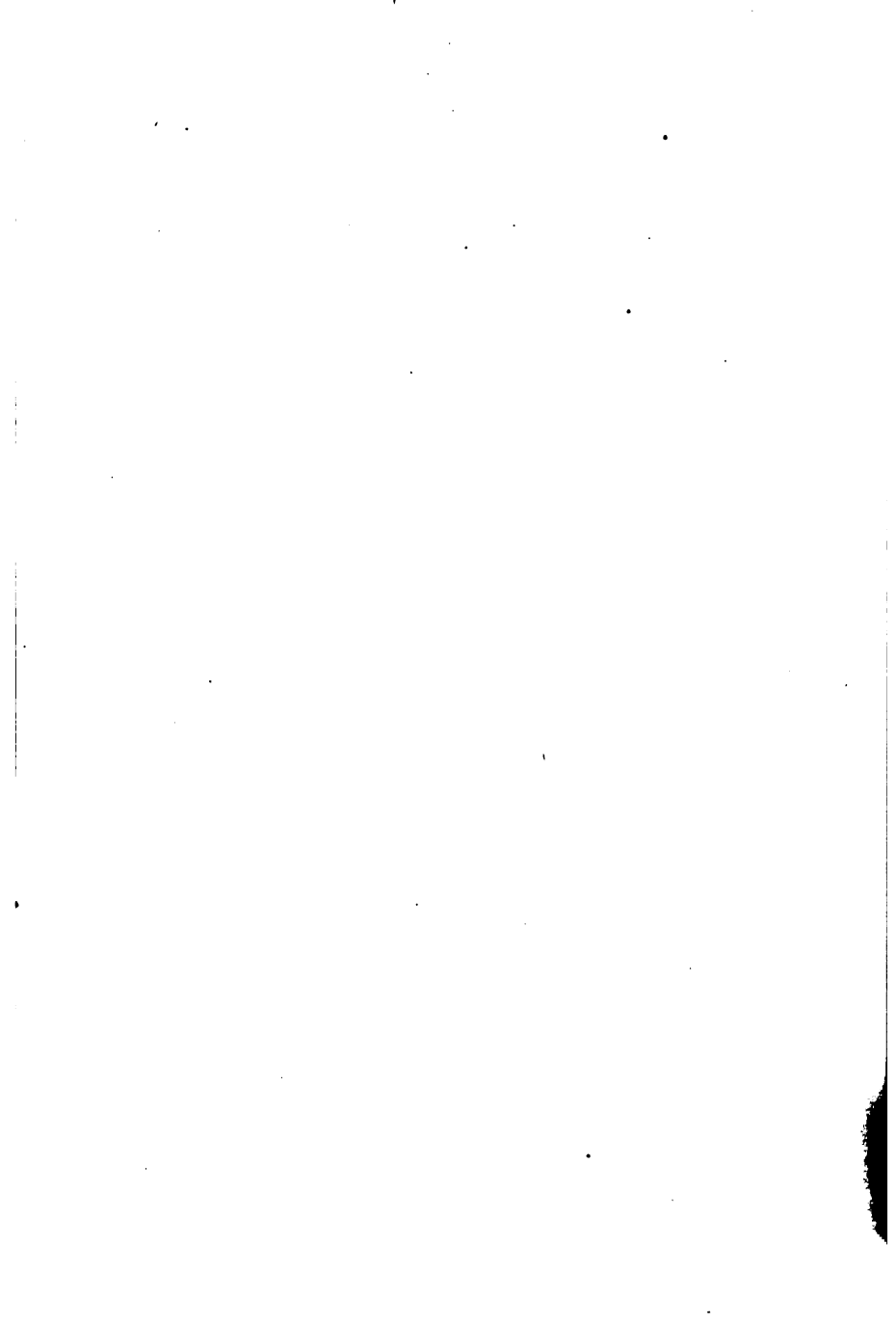
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